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ABSTRACT

This document presents the impressions of the educational Staff Seminar Study tour of the Soviet Union. After the introduction and itinerary, the first chapter deals with the soviet scene including sections on religion, ideology, the social system and the soviet woman. The second chapter concerns the early childhood and preschool education of soviet youngsters, including daycare, student discipline, and early childhood education research. The third chapter concerns elementary and secondary education including specialized English language schools, pioneer palaces, the exceptional student and the slow learner, educational technology, and vocational-technical schools. The fourth chapter deals with higher education, adult education and research, with sections on leadership goals, foreign literature, the Moscow State University, and the Institute of Adult Education Research. Teacher training, scientific and educational information dissemination, and perspectives on soviet health concern the next three chapters. The eighth chapter is a summing up of soviet lessons for American education. Appendices include a roster of tour participants and a description of the Educational Staff Seminar. (Author/PG)

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Impressions of Soviet Education:

A SECOND LOOK

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IMPRESSIONS OF SOVIET EDUCATION: A SECOND LOOK

A Report of the Educational Staff Seminar Study Tour

November 16-30, 1972

Edited by

George B. Lane

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*A report of a first group of ESS visitors to the U.S.S.R. in 1971 is available from the ESS office, along with similar reports on education in Israel and Japan.

INTRODUCTION

by George B. Lane

Travel in the Soviet Union is a mind-blowing experience. Culture shock is an ever-present phenomenon, and no one returns to the West unchanged. Yet, in many respects, the Soviet Union and the United States are much alike. They are both characterized by high machine technology in their corporate industrial systems. They both strive to create the good life for their citizens in an environment of increasing urbanization and rapid technological change. It should be expected that Soviet cities and public institutions resemble ours to some extent. And they do.

But although the U.S.S.R. confronts many of the same problems we face in the U.S., it has resolved most of them in very different ways. It is the juxtaposition between the familiar urban environment and gentle humanity of the Soviet people on the one hand with the startling rigor of the Communist mindcast on the other which causes the jolt to so many non-Communist visitors.

While the problems are familiar, the solutions decidedly are not. Indeed, the very perception of the problem is quite different from that of the American mind. The communication gap is therefore severe, requiring careful definition of terms and considerable goodwill to perceive the reality beneath surface contradictions.

Stark primitivism pervades the Soviet setting of what appears superficially to be a European culture. The American mind continually boggles at the course quality of virtually everything, only to be staggered by the exquisite refinement displayed in Russian Czarist art, architecture, and music. The sharp contrast between Soviet achievements in scientific technology (notably in space, of course) and the raw, often slipshod construction of buildings, for example, seems disturbingly inconsistent. The generally low standard of living and the pride displayed by female Intourist guides in owning that mark of distinction, a mink pillbox hat, touches the foreign visitor deeply.

Only after reflection on Russian history and development does a consistent rationale emerge from the welter of apparent contradiction. And nowhere is this more necessary than in the field of education, one of the major supports and achievements of the Soviet state. The fact is that the Soviet Union suffers the evil heritage of a society which has only in this century emerged from economic servitude. This nation of freed serfs and proletariat has come a very long way in a very short period of time. They have had to maintain a stringent list of priorities in order to do so. Luxuries and most consumer goods have had to wait. Although education has occupied a high place on the agenda, military preparedness has, unfortunately, come first.

In 1917, we were told, only 15 percent of the Russian people were literate, and most of those fled the country after the Revolution because education had been largely restricted to the landed aristocracy. In the past 55 years, therefore, the Soviet Union has faced the necessity of creating an educational system from scratch, built upon the almost total illiteracy of the population. It has, at the same time, created systems of medicine, housing, industry, and science.

Russia was one of the most backward major powers on earth at the time of the Revolution. Although its serfs had been freed about the same time as slaves in the United States, they had been kept in much the same condition of debt peonage as occurred in this country. Imperial Russia resembled the ante bellum South in the United States--a tiny aristocracy lived in great comfort with a highly sophisticated European culture, supported by a huge mass of rural and urban poor who were denied virtually every aspect of human dignity.

In one step, the Soviet Union vaulted into the modern age. It is the shortcuts taken to achieve and stabilize this transition which troubles Western visitors. That, and the acknowledged fact of a highly structured and closed society, entirely dominated by the State. These two factors reinforce each other, of course, as is clearly evident in Soviet education.

The Soviet educational system is based largely upon rote memorization--rigid, static, yet efficient. It does what it was designed to do--turn out willing workers. Although President Nixon has stated that the United States is becoming a post-industrial society, no one doubts that the Soviet Union is profoundly industrial and intends to stay that way.

In higher education, free and open inquiry has never constituted a large part of the Russian intellectual heritage. The tradition of authoritarian government which characterized the 300 years of Romanov reign did not provide a hospitable environment for advanced academic research. This is not to say that European science and philosophy were unknown in Czarist Russia, but the universities were traditionally centers of cultural refinement for the sons of nobility, and they did not become significant research centers until after the Revolution.

The Revolution displaced one despotism with another, albeit a dictatorship of the proletariat. Although a major thrust toward scientific and technological development was undertaken, a spirit of objective inquiry was still missing. The official sanction which was extended to dubious scientific theorists like the psychologist Pavlov and biologist Lysenko are testaments to the crippling intrusion of political factors into scientific research. The overwhelming importance of Party line and dogma still hinders educational innovation and reform. Moreover, the persecution of contemporary Soviet scientists and humanists who espouse unconventional viewpoints is quite consistent with longstanding historical tradition which reaches far beyond the Communist revolution.

This fact, indeed, makes academic nonconformists even more notable, for they symbolize far more than simply a rejection of contemporary Soviet social and political theories. They seek for themselves and their country an intellectual tradition of untrammeled curiosity which would allow the scholar to entertain any notion his mind can conceive. But this, surely, has never been officially perceived as an objective of Soviet higher education. It would be clearly incompatible with both Russian history and Soviet government.

Education in the Soviet Union, then, is not a process of intellectual liberation. It more nearly resembles an assembly line for the production of obedient citizens. It is nonetheless devoted to the best interests of those citizens, as defined by the State. Literacy and enlightenment for citizenship are therefore the professed goals of the public schools. Another clearcut goal is to raise the consciousness level of workers by both formal and informal educational processes after the end of secondary school. But at no point in the educational process is the student challenged to think provocatively outside the confines of a rigidly structured curriculum.

Soviet social values stress the State over the individual, order and obedience over free association, technical skills over imagination, the conventional over the unconventional. Education in the Soviet Union is expected to teach children to be good Communists. Soviet education emphasizes group enterprise, not individual initiative. In that context, however, Soviet education is quite successful in both design and operation.

The success of the Soviet Union in scientific disciplines suggests that science lends itself to the normative values of Soviet education. Moreover, the Nobel prizes awarded to Boris Pasternak and Alexander Solzhenitzen suggest that, either by accident or design, the human spirit manages to survive. But the extent of official constraints upon social commentary--particularly criticism--is clearly inhibiting.

The most recent advance in Societ education has been the widespread introduction of the detskii sad, the daycare nursery-kindergarten school, during the 1960's. The second major innovation, of longer-standing character, is the Young Pioneers movement which has received considerable attention in this report. Both are impressive to American visitors because of their immediate applicability to educational voids in our country.

It was a surprise to the group to find so much Soviet national treasure and skill poured into the restoration of Czarist palaces, cathedrals, and public monuments. The French revolutionaries left Versailles abandoned to the weather for 70 years and burned the Tuilleries Palace to the ground. It seems incongruous that the Soviets should lavish such tender, loving care upon the artifacts of imperial splendor. But we were told by Intourist guides that Lenin himself stationed guards at the Winter Palace to prevent its plundering by the people during the Revolution.

In any event, we in the West are very fortunate that they have preserved the magnificent Romanov citadels in original grandeur. A tour of those living museums is an educational experience of the first order. But the Czars lived in a heavily European culture. Catherine the Great was a German princess, after all. Many of the Czarist treasures are largely superb examples of Eighteenth century European art and architecture. An Italian, Rastrelli, set the tone for most of the fantasy in stone which is Leningrad. And nowhere is this more apparent than in the halls of the Hermitage and Winter Palace, where European art is found exclusively. We did not see a single Russian painting in those 300 rooms.

The workmanship in those buildings is entirely Russian, however, and that is why they have been so carefully preserved. The ancient frescoes in the Cathedrals of the Annunication and Assumption in the Kremlin are Russian, and the incredibly skilled restoration is being done by Soviet hands. No one is considered properly trained to touch them until he is 40 years old. The breath-taking reconstruction of Catherine's summer palace at Pushkin is another lesson to those who may be inclined to dismiss Soviet competence in artistry and precision.

Another rare educational experience in the Soviet Union was the opportunity to witness some of the world's greatest performing artists, many of whom are seldom seen outside that country. Watching and hearing Soviet dancers, singers, and music is a cultural delight. None of us who sat in the gilt baroque Bolshoi theater in Moscow to witness Tschaikovsky's Eugen Onegin or watched Swan Lake performed by the Kirov ballet in Leningrad are ever likely to forget it.

But, alas, some of the Socialist realism ballet we saw performed by the Kirov was hardly comparable to Swan Lake, and it seemed sad that so accomplished a troupe should be used for such commonplace dance. The contemporary culture is simply not allowed the freer expression that marked the golden age of Russian music in the 19th and early 20th centuries. We can only hope that, as economic and social goals are achieved, political restraints on the humanities and arts will be released.

We discovered that all intellectual research activity is referred to as "science." This is true in a generic sense even of the humanities and education, where inquiry is largely conducted by "scientific workers" in Research Institutes. The emphasis upon science is not simply semantics but reveals the preoccupation of the Soviet Union with technology. Science in the Soviet Union means applied knowledge, irrespective of the discipline.

In the drive to create a viable industrial economy, the Soviet Union has harnessed all human talents to technology, whether in medicine, psychology, mathematics, languages, education or law. Abstract research is little favored in this context, of course; scientific research is therefore applied research. Research in the humanities receives only token support and is even then a carefully controlled product.

There are also few departments of sociology, political science, social psychology, or comparative economics in the Soviet Union. These are disciplines for which the study of Marx, Engels, and Lenin has answered all the questions. Nothing further is to be gained from inquiry in those fields, as we know them.

But in many respects, the culture gap we experienced in the Soviet Union was due largely to the very denial of political motivation or sensibilities by our hosts. Whereas American tunnel vision is economic, the Soviet blinders are political--that is, denial of the interpersonal stress created by human competition for power. This was particularly clear in their insistence that Soviet society is classless, while we saw evidence of class distinctions throughout our visit. (Milovan Djilas had alerted the Western world to those realities in The New Class many years ago, of course.) Americans cling to a free market fantasy while living in a corporate economy dominated by administered prices; Soviets maintain illusions of an equalitarian democracy while living in one of the most rigid totalitarian States on earth. Our clash of ideologies made for mutual confusion.

Education is a perquisite of the powerful and well-placed. This basic fact of all societies in recorded history applies with equal force to the Soviet Union. It is one of the class distinctions which was most apparent to us. Children of industrial workers were much less likely to be found in specialized secondary schools, higher education, and professional training. Our questions in this regard usually drew vehement denials from Soviet educators, but the factors of home environment, personal ambition, and academic aptitude are as important in the Soviet Union as anywhere else.

In an attempt to counterbalance this trend, however, various preferential measures have been introduced into university admissions criteria which favor students who have worked for several years before applying for entry. The fact that all education is free and that university students customarily receive stipends does tend to mitigate the advantage enjoyed by students of the Commissar-Class.

That the Soviet Union has not eliminated all group struggle for social power was also revealed in the fascinating visit with Dr. Anatol V. Darinski of the Adult Education Research Institute in Leningrad. Dr. Darinski related how the trade unions (whose existence in a workers' society comes as a surprise) fought with the factory management for free time with pay for workers to take continuing education classes. He said that the factory managers had heavy production goals to meet and were resolutely opposed to the union demand for one day a week off at half pay to attend classes. (Management is management, whether Capitalist or Socialist, as Peter Drucker long ago pointed out.) But the unions won out by basing their case upon the civil guarantee in the Soviet Constitution of the right to study for every citizen. (The other two rights are to work and to rest.)

We found the oppressive presence of the totalitarian State to be the most forbidding aspect of life in the Soviet Union. The extent of official control over all aspects of life in political, social, and economic terms leaves its indelible mark on everyone. Living in a controlled State is an instructive experience. There is the mysterious jamming of locks on luggage left unattended during the day in hotel rooms, the consternation experienced by translators with blunt questions about Party control of secondary school facilities, the ubiquitous presence of young commissars at the side of university spokesmen, and the inquisitorial experience of passing through border clearance upon departure. No one forgets the cold scrutiny of the armed Red Army soldier who searches your face as he compares it to the passport picture before you are allowed to step aboard the plane at last. No one leaves the Soviet Union unless he is officially cleared to go, and that somber reality was forceably brought home to us.

In fact, the most fearful drama of the tour was our departure from Leningrad Airport where two members of the ESS group were taken off the plane under armed guard just before takeoff. It was a chilling conculsion to our visit and left without doubt the complete control exercised by the Soviet Union upon all human beings within its orbit.

It all began on an evening spent by some of the tour members with a famous former Kirov ballet star, Valery Panov, and his wife in Leningrad. Panov had been officially ostracized because of a request to emigrate to Israel early in 1972. At the end of the evening, learning that one young man would be stopping in London on the way back home, Panov asked him to carry a letter there for him.

Going through customs, however, the young man was asked to produce his wallet, and it was searched. The letter was found and confiscated with great outrage. The young man and a young woman who had accompanied him to Panov's apartment were thereupon removed from the group; their luggage was taken from the plane. Ron Hall, the ESS tour leader, remonstrated with the authorities who first demanded that the entire group deplane and submit to search for other contraband. Finally, however, we were allowed to depart for Helsinki on schedule, leaving behind our two young friends. Our last sight of them in the early winter darkness was through the airplane window as a lighted bus took them away, sitting all alone with the armed soldiers.

Arriving in Finland, Ron notified the American legation which contacted the consulate in Leningrad immediately. So, after four harrowing hours in Soviet custody during which they and their luggage were searched, and subjected to intensive questioning, the young couple were released into American hands. They were put on a night train to Helsinki and reached there next morning in time to rejoin the group flight to Amsterdam. Despite the happy ending, the episode provided us all with a sober realization of the lengths to which Soviet government will go to insure its regulation of citizens and their communication.

Another anecdote in this vein was the refusal by an English-speaking university student to keep two paperback books which we had given her. One was Henry Adams' Chartres and Mont St. Michel; another was concerned with the impact upon American history of the Bill of Rights. After keeping them overnight, she returned them next morning, saying that it would probably not be wise for her to have books on politics and religion in her possession. We finally convinced her to give them to the Soviet-American Friendship Society Library where she might read them without arousing suspicion of her motives. Her fear of possessing unauthorized books in English was clear, however, and very real.

In addition to thoroughgoing control of the mind, the Soviet Union has made great strides toward controlling the heart as well. The characterization of Communism as a religion is now old stuff, but the truth is clear. The mystique of becoming a good Soviet citizen preoccupies official jargon, and the esprit of creating heaven on earth for all men is pervasive. So is the sense of being surrounded by capitalist infidels whose ultimate objective is to halt the worship of the one true God whose name is Lenin.

This mystique was the most difficult barrier to effective communication. That became particularly clear to me at our final luncheon in the Soviet Union. Our chief guide was an urbane and sophisticated woman of mature years who was known to us simply as Natasha. Toasting her at lunch with a farewell glass of champagne, I was touched by her open and hearty manner. Impulsively, I said to her, "Natasha, we come from very different cultures, but our humanity is the same. We have a common basis in human nature, and I am proud to have known you." To my surprise, she bristled and responded, "Do not forget that I am a Communist!" I acknowledged in some confusion that I was aware of that. She added, "I am a Communist Party member, too." So I just smiled and let it go at that, rather sadly. The barriers were always there, even when invisible.

Perhaps the most remarkable person we met in the Soviet Union was Dr. Darinski, Director of the Adult Education Research Institute in Leningrad. An altogether engaging man who spoke perfect English, Dr. Darinski was a square and solid man, middle-aged with a shock of iron-gray hair. Poised, intelligent, and forthright, he was more like an American in his manner than any other Soviet official we met. He clearly thought in English because his answers were quick, unrehearsed, and candid.

He was quite familiar with American and European authorities on adult education, widely traveled outside the Soviet Union, and conversed easily about the most advanced theories of psychological motivation, memory research, and mathematical models. He mentioned casually having read a paper in Paris the previous year on educational technology. At ease with English colloquialisms, he said many boys at 16 are "bored to death" with school and should be released to engage in meaningful employment. But, he admitted, "then the war begins" to persuade them to finish their secondary studies after work hours.

He was also knowledgeable about the International Adult Education Association, with headquarters in Montreal, to which the Soviet Union belongs, as well as such centers of adult education research as Tokyo and Edinburgh. He helped prepare the background materials for the UNESCO Conference on Adult Education held in 1972 in Tokyo. When asked if he wanted to question any of us on American practices in the adult education field, he replied simply that he had read all U.S. literature and felt so well versed that he doubted we would tell him anything he did not already know.

Another notable educator who deserves mention is Dr. Babarikin, Director of the Hertzen Institute, also in Leningrad. Babarikin is a man of great competence and poise. Easy and unassuming in manner, he is slender with silver hair which gives him a distinguished appearance. He met with a small group of us to discuss the education of Soviet eskimos, who are called Far Northerners. Babarikin had lived among the Far North people for many years and taught in their schools. He clearly had a warm regard and humane concern for them and their culture. His discussion betrayed no hint of the patronizing condescension which often marks those who minister to minorities. He was patient, tolerant, and committed to helping us understand the Hertzen program for Far North teachers. Candid, open, and low-key, Dr. Babarikin exhibited the qualities of an outstanding educator in any society. We came away believing that we could learn a lot from him about preserving the dignity and culture of native peoples.

In closing, I want to pay tribute for the entire group to the leadership and efforts of Ron Hall, the tour leader. His fluency in Russian and experience in Soviet affairs were invaluable in arranging meaningful schedules of inspection visits. The hurdles and handicaps he faced each day were harsh challenges, but he was able through great effort to maintain a coherent course of affairs. His adroit negotiation in an inflamed situation at the Leningrad Airport was a masterful achievement.

Ron and his extraordinary wife, Jacqueline, were catalytic agents whose contributions heightened the quality of each endeavor. Their understanding of Soviets and the Soviet Union eased us all over baffling episodes and gave us shrewd insight into motivation. Their constant interpretive counsel made the visit infinitely richer than it would otherwise have been.

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FIELD TRIP ITINERARY: EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R.
Friday, November 17 to Wednesday, November 29, 1972

MOSCOW: November 17-21

November 17, Friday

Evening arrival at Moscow Airport. To Intourist Hotel, on Gorky Street near Red Square.

November 18, Saturday

Morning: One group visited the academic, Russian-language elementary-secondary school in a working class district of Moscow.

Another group visited an English-language, specialized elementary-secondary school elsewhere in Moscow.

Afternoon: Tour of Moscow

November 19, Sunday

Morning: Visit to All-Union Exhibition of Soviet Economic Achievements on outskirts of Moscow.

Afternoon: City Tour

November 20, Monday

Morning: Visit to two Detski Sad (nursery-kindergartens) in Moscow suburbs

Afternoon: Visit to Soviet Ministry of Education

November 21, Tuesday

Morning: One group visited the Research Institute of the U.S.A., while a second group toured the Kremlin.

Afternoon: One group visited the Moscow Central Pioneer Palace; a second group visited Moscow State University.

KIEV: November 22-24

November 22, Wednesday

Morning: Flight to Kiev, Ukraine

Afternoon: City tour of Kiev

November 23, Thursday

Morning: One group visited Central Pioneer Palace; a second group visited a specialized English-language elementary-secondary school.

Afternoon: Kiev State University
(A small group returned to the Pioneer Palace for further conversations and observation.)

November 24, Friday

Morning:	Pedagogical Research Institute of the Ukraine.
Afternoon:	Flight to Leningrad

LENINGRAD: November 25-29

November 25, Saturday

Morning:	City tour of Leningrad
Afternoon:	Ministry of Culture Music School, Moskovskii District

November 26, Sunday

Morning:	Tour of Winter Palace and Hermitage Museum
Afternoon	Drive to village of Pushkin and tour of Catherine the Great's summer palace

November 27, Monday

Morning:	One group visited the All-Union Research Institute for Evening and Correspondence Schools; another visited the English-language specialized elementary-secondary school, Moskovskii District
Afternoon:	Visit to Department of Education, Leningrad City Soviet of Deputies

November 28, Tuesday

Morning:	Visit to Hertzen Institute for Teacher Training
Early afternoon:	Visit to Central Pioneer Palace
Late afternoon:	Leningrad University reception at Soviet-American House of Friendship

November 29, Wednesday

Morning:	Visit to a vocational-technical school
Afternoon:	Departure for Helsinki, Finland

FRONTISPIECE: PRESSURES IN RUSSIA

from The Washington Post - December 22, 1972

Pressures on Soviet children can be enormous. An entire, ten year school career is measured by one set of oral examinations at the end. A slip in those exams can change the course of a child's life. Soviet children also face strong, formal pressure to conform--the trait that so distinguishes Russian youth from their East European comrades. All children are members of the Young Pioneers. As teenagers, the troublesome non-conformists are left out of the Young Communists' League, a major blow to the chances for career advancement.

Early selection is typical of Soviet society. Promising athletes can receive special training before they are ten Children are admitted to special music schools, destining them for musical careers, at age seven. Schools, recreation centers, Young Pioneer palaces all try to identify and develop talent from an early age.

The brick-and-glass central Pioneer Palace in Kiev is a monument to this technique, a community education center which any American school superintendent might envy. The palace's staff of 150 gives enrichment instruction to about 9000 children from five to 16, in such fields as zoology, folk dancing, cooking and even tourism. Asked about discipline problems, an administrator answered sharply that the extra classes were a privilege, and any child that created a discipline problem would not remain long.

Not all endure these pressures. According to recently published Soviet reports, juvenile drinking is serious. Nearly 85 percent of children under 18 convicted of crimes in the Soviet Union began drinking vodka before they were 16, according to the newspaper Socialist Industry.

The Communist drop-out culture is in some respects puzzling because educational standards are high, and all university graduates are guaranteed a job. Yet it exists. Many of the leading dropouts are among the potentially most promising members of their generation. For example, a young Soviet physiologist who finished four years of a five-year university course with straight A's and then quit.

Later, she explained to a friend that the pressure had been too great, and that differences in pay between a degree-holder and an ordinary citizen were not worth the effort. "The degree would not have that much status," the friend explained. "People who are in the intelligentsia in the Soviet Union feel they are in it. They don't need a degree to tell them."

Chapter I

THE SOVIET SCENE

Education is the transmission line for the culture to which it belongs. Perceptions of the culture therefore provide insight into educational norms, values, and objectives.

With 41 people viewing Soviet education and culture from different vantage points, the kaleidescope of impressions can be confusing. Six ESS participants have chosen to put their views on paper as a random sample. The scope of these is wide but illustrative of the variety of our experiences.

* * *

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE SOVIET UNION

(by Delano Lewis)

General Impressions

I had few pre-conceived ideas of the Soviet Union. I attended the ESS briefing meetings before the trip and arrived with an open and objective mind about the Soviet Union.

My first impression was one of marvel at the gracious hospitality the group received on arrival in Moscow. There were no difficulties at Customs on our arrival, and we proceeded smoothly to the hotel. Our room assignments were given with few hitches and snags, and we went on to dinner that evening in grand style.

Our meals were always served fairly promptly with more than adequate portions. I did not know what kinds of foods to expect, but I soon became quite accustomed to plenty of bread, lox for appetizers, and loads of potatoes (all kinds) for the main course. We all ate too well on the trip, and many of us rolled onto the plane as we departed the Soviet Union.

The first night in Moscow, particularly our walk to Red Square, was overwhelming. The Kremlin, Lenin's Tomb, Basil's Cathedral were all very impressive sights at nighttime. We were fortunate enough to see the Changing of the Guard at Lenin's Tomb as we walked through Red Square. I was impressed by the numbers of people walking the streets at night. We saw literally hundreds of people in the area of the hotel and Red Square. This was not only true for early evening but into the night as well. All the people we saw were warmly dressed with heavy coats, scarves, hats and boots. We didn't see anyone who did not have adequate clothes for the weather.

The weather throughout the trip was surprisingly good. It was not as cold as we were led to believe. Moscow was cold but no more so than winters in Kansas. It was warmer in Kiev, and the thermal underwear became a nuisance rather than a help. It was snowing in Leningrad but not too cold.

I found the people throughout our visit to be cordial, but the language barrier was certainly a hindrance to real communicating. Therefore, my impressions of the people of the Soviet Union are from those who spoke English, and my impressions of the average Russian are certainly surface impressions.

I noticed very few smiling faces, particularly in Moscow--not even toward each other and certainly not toward foreigners. There was little laughter among the people as they walked and talked with each other. If I could use a color to describe a feeling in Moscow, it would be gray. There was something gray and somber about Moscow, and the people reflected this feeling.

I did have the opportunity to meet and talk with several African students in Moscow and Leningrad. The following story is illustrative of something, although I'm not quite sure what. The prearranged visit to Lumumba University was cancelled during our stay; my wife and I made every effort to visit there but to no avail. One evening, however, we met an Ethiopian student in the Foreign Currency Bar of the Intourist Hotel, and after a long conversation, he agreed to escort us to Lumumba University. This student had only arrived a few months ago. The next day, Al Alford, my wife, and I went by metro and trolley with this student to the Student Hostel near the campus.

As we approached the shopping area around the Hostel, he met another Ethiopian student. After a brief conversation in Amharic, our friend turned to us with a half-frightened look on his face and said that his Ethiopian friend advised him not to show foreigners around the campus. Seeing the terror in his face and knowing he had to live and study in Moscow after we left, we decided it was best we return to the hotel.

Later, I became friendly with a Somali student in Leningrad who was finishing his sixth year. He talked at length about the horrors of Communism and how awful it was to live in the Soviet Union. He related difficulties he had encountered when he dated a Russian girl. He told one instance where a Russian girl was taken away from the company of African students in a Foreign Currency Bar. This Somali student found the system to be extremely repressive and was counting the days to the end of the year when he finishes his studies and returns to Somalia.

Education

The educational system in the Soviet Union, as we saw it, was impressive. There were three areas that stood out in my mind: (1) preschool-kindergarten; (2) English language schools; (3) Pioneer Palaces. First, the Soviet system is quite similar to the British system of education, and that is School is serious business. Like the British system, there was a great deal of emphasis on teaching the strict letter of the syllabus to enable the child to pass an examination. On the other hand, in the Soviet Union, the educational process was definitely designed to prepare literate and competent workers.

Preschools were fascinating. Although compulsory education begins at age 7, preschools from 3 to 7 are catching on in the Soviet Union. For a small fee (depending on the size of your income), a mother can leave her child at a nursery or kindergarten from early morning to early evening. This arrangement frees mothers to work while the children are placed in a learning situation.

The Soviets are making an excellent beginning. These early childhood schools were fairly well equipped with many teaching tools. There were sections on didactics, elements of instruction, language arts, and practical life. Five-year olds were beginning science instruction, and there were books to prepare the children for math and reading.

The special English language schools were excellent. If Americans could learn anything from these schools, it would be how to teach a foreign language. Instead of teaching a language in isolation as we do, these schools incorporate the learning of a language in every subject from first grade to the tenth. You not only can converse in the language, but you also begin to think in the language.

In my opinion, the English language school in Moscow was the best special school we visited during the entire trip. The students in this school were unbelievable. They took charge of us, and there were student guides to show us the school. I had a student in the ninth form who spoke English beautifully. It was my understanding that 90 percent of these students go on to higher education. My real concern with this kind of school is what happens to those who don't go on to higher education. Will they find jobs where English could be used? Probably not.

One of the main highlights of the trips were the Pioneer Palaces. I visited a Pioneer Palace in each city--Moscow, Kiev, and Leningrad. This is the part of the Soviet system that is sorely needed in America. It would be to our advantage to try and duplicate the Pioneer Palace idea. I know full well that the Pioneer Palace is the training ground for future members of the Communist Party, nevertheless this system of out-of-school education has a great deal of merit.

A child is recommended by his teacher to join certain circles or clubs at the Pioneer Palace. Many schools have Pioneer Clubs at schools which also seem to excite and interest the child. You are eligible to join when you are 7, and after age 14, you join Komsomol, the Young Communist League. You must have good behavior marks and good grades. There is intense group pressure to join Young Pioneers, even though it is supposed to be voluntary; therefore, about 98 percent of this age group in any given school become Young Pioneers.

There is usually a Pioneer House in every District and one Central Palace in the city. A child can join not more than 2 circles or clubs, and he usually comes two times a week. There are circles in drama, art, music, dance, physical education, electricity, chess, woodwork--planes and ships and missiles; botany, biology, astronomy, etc. If a child is interested in a subject area, he can pursue this subject in depth--two times a week after school.

One purpose of the Pioneer Palace is to indoctrinate the young student in Party matters, but since these Palaces are set up under the Ministry of Education, there is a serious attempt to educate as well. It also serves as a training ground for the most talented students, and the Palace is an identifier of top talent for the State.

Conclusion

As a political scientist and lawyer, I was intrigued by the Communist system. As a Black American, I was attracted to the benefits of Communism since our country has for so long neglected the poor and the disadvantaged. For example, it was impressive that medical care was free; education was free; jobs were guaranteed; and the State paid for all but four percent of your housing costs. However, the arm of the State was ever present, and I learned from others that individual liberties and freedoms are curtailed in exchange for these benefits. It is not worth the price.

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SOVIET LIFE AND TIMES

(by Terry Margerum)

The Soviets display a frugality of resource utilization which is truly admirable. The most frequently noticed example of their "scarce resource attitude" was their use (or relative non-use) of lighting during the day. I can recall several mid-afternoon meetings with very distinguished hosts which were held in near darkness, by American standards. Once we met with the Rector of Kiev State University and several of his department heads in the main auditorium of the college (life-sized statue of Lenin and all). Not a single light was lit, and the room was deep in gray afternoon shadows.

If one wanted to read during the meeting, it was necessary to turn and face a window. This was not the only meeting in which we were literally in the dark. A similar situation occurred when we visited the famous Academy of Science. Indeed, this lack of lighting was the rule and not the exception. Very few of the classrooms we visited at any educational level had the lights on. I found myself squinting not infrequently.

Such parsimony extends evidently to the use of heat as well. Many of the classrooms and other facilities which we visited were quite cool -- often in the low 60's; sometimes it felt like the 50's From what I remember of studies on the correlation between attentiveness/productivity and temperature, this practice is probably very functional as well as economic. I can recall being lulled to sleep more than once by the womb-like warmth of the American classroom.

Super Subways

One thing the Soviets do extremely well is to provide efficient, clean urban mass transit. Public transportation systems (at least those observed in Moscow and Leningrad) seem to work well. Furthermore, the Moscow metro is not only expedient but also a thing of beauty, more like an art museum than underground railroad.

These systems are a triumph of public over private consumption, and the people treat the facilities as we treat our own private property -- no graffiti, no litter. In this country we ask the impossible -- that modern, efficient mass transit systems be profitable in a strict balance-sheet sense. The economics of mass transit -- high capital requirements and working-class clientele -- preclude this outcome. Maybe some day soon America will finally admit such systems do not have to be profitable to be necessary and desirable.

Food, Drink, and Other Amenities

There are a few brief comments on the general standard of living. It is assumed that, since our group was housed in some of the better hotels, we enjoyed quality of comestibles not enjoyed by the average Soviet citizen. Several visits to grocery marts and butcher shops confirmed this hypothesis, at least for me personally. In the butcher and fish shops I visited, for example, prices were higher than in the States for products of considerably lesser quality (at least in appearance) than one encounters in the average American supermarket.

As practitioners of the culinery arts, the Soviets pose precious little threat to the French or Chinese. They do a few things quite well, but most very unimaginatively. The food in Kiev (the Ukraine - not Russia) was much better than the cuisine in Moscow or Leningrad. Over a period of fifteen days, we had borscht five or six times, stroganoff twice, chicken kiev thrice, vanilla ice cream daily. Identical loaves of brown and white breads followed us everywhere we went.

Russian wine and soft drinks were, in a word, lousy, as was the beer (even by American beer standards!). However, I found the champagne cheap and fairly good; the vodka is, of course, delightful and smooth. One quickly acquires the ability of downing Russian vodka in a style not dissimilar from that of the whiskey-drinking heroes of the American West. Vodka is made from potatoes. The Russians really know how to make the most of the potatoes -- and not only in terms of their famous beverage. They fry their potatoes like the Germans and grow them like the Europeans; that is, potatoes are grown for their flavor rather than for size shape, or color. In potatoes, you see, beauty is more than skin deep.

Giardia Lamblia (yet another amenity)

More than a few of us brought back with us a parasitic inhabitant of the Leningrad water works. I, for one, was not surprised, sensing immediately that any water so brown and foul-smelling was less than perfectly compatible with human life. However, this creature acquired in Baltic Leningrad is no match for the medicos at the State Department. For treatment, proceed to the Division of Tropical Disease and get your anti-malerial pill.

Beriozka Baby

The Soviet Union is not a consumer-oriented society. Moreover, in a consumer context, the Soviets are second-class citizens in their own country. This results from the existence of an institution called the Beriozka shop. Many of the best consumer goods produced in the U.S.S.R. are available only in these shops. Furthermore, the prices on many items are lower than in the regular shops.

The catch is this: Only foreign currencies are accepted in the Beriozkas! Since Russians are not allowed to possess foreign currencies, by and large, they cannot shop there. This situation aroused mixed feelings in me, and I wondered why the Soviet people tolerated such treatment. Although I did not detect much resentment, I am confident that it exists and can be expected to increase as the U.S.S.R. opens up to more travelers and more trade with the West.

There are ways that the people beat the System, or at least work around it. One is the black market, of course. Another which results from the consumer dichotomy produced by the Beriozka is the "why don't we change money?" game. Some Soviets will offer to exchange rubles with tourists for dollars or francs or marks at far above the official exchange rate. With these foreign currencies, they can gain access to the nicer products available only at the Beriozkas.

One is normally cautioned by the State Department and travel agencies about this game and encouraged to avoid it, since sometimes Soviet agents may try to lure Americans into a compromising situation. Of course, the Russian citizens can never be sure that you are not a plant. This makes the whole affair a bit scary for both sides of the transaction.

I was approached several different times -- once by a hotel porter and three times by lovely Russian women. Clearly these latter cases are the more interesting to relate, since it is a unique form of prostitution. In each instance, the women were much better dressed and much more attractive than the average. They were usually in their 20's or early 30's.

The game goes something like this: You're sitting in a nice hotel dining and dancing room, and you see a lovely young lady that you'd like to dance with. At first you think that she's German or Yugoslavian or perhaps even Scandinavian, because she certainly doesn't look Russian nor is she dressed like most of the Russians. There is, of course, a very logical and good reason for this.

So you ask her to dance, and she says yes. You hit it off, and she finds that you're from the States; she's delighted. So she asks you to come to her table and join her for some champagne. If you are fortunate, you discover a common language (maybe French, German, or Italian). Regardless, you start to enjoy yourself.

Fairly late in the evening, she will lean tenderly over the table and suggest that you might like to exchange money. Since I never said yes, I don't know what would next happen. However, if you say no, things get even more interesting. After an appropriate pause, the question becomes, "Why don't we go back to my apartment and talk for a while?" Three out of four women I met in Russia were playing this game. The only one who was not after my money was a Polish medical student. Or so she said.

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A NOTE ON RELIGION
(by Robert L. Klassen)

With a Washington Post clipping and picture in hand of President Nixon's visit to a Baptist Church in Moscow during May, 1972, we convinced the taxi driver to take us to the large Baptist church situated in an old quarter of Moscow not far from the Kremlin. The church was packed with over 1500 worshippers who were standing in the aisles, sitting on the stairs and sitting in, on, and around the pulpit. The congregation was a mixture of ages and sexes, including young people. We estimated that one-fourth of the congregation was male (a striking difference from the all-woman Russian Orthodox congregations), including several Red Army soldiers!

We learned that the Baptists are the second largest religious body in the U.S.S.R. after the Russian Orthodox Church. There are somewhere between 500,000 and several million practicing Baptists in the country. This particular church is the headquarters building of the National Baptist Church which apparently works hard to maintain good relations with the Soviet Government.

After the service, Reverend I.M. Orlov received us and presented us with a photograph of the Nixon visit to the church last May. Orlov has traveled extensively in the United States, presumably with the blessing of the Soviet government -- one of the enigmas of the Soviet position on religion.

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POLITICAL ECONOMICS AND IDEOLOGY
(by Harold Wolman)

The education system of the U.S.S.R. exists to carry out the task set for it by the state. It does not function as an independent or competing institution, as schools do to some extent in our own pluralistic society. As the Vice Rector of Herzen Institute succinctly observed, "In our country, society shapes the schools; the schools do not shape society." Thus, the stated role of Soviet schools is to train useful, productive workers, molded in the image of "new Soviet man." This contrasts with our oft-vocalized educational goal of educating each child to his or her fullest human potential. Certainly, our system also prepares children for slots in the labor market and imbues them (a good deal more subtly) with our liberal democratic ideology, but nonetheless our focus is more on the development of the child; theirs is on the shaping of the child according to state needs.

It is difficult to transcend our own intellectural framework to communicate meaningfully with members of a society organized so differently from our own. Often answers to our questions appeared evasive or not to the point. At first, I attributed this either to faulty translation (our Intourist guides were excellent translators, but they were not education professionals) or to a seemingly worldwide tendency for bureaucrats to obfuscate. Towards the end of our trip, however, I began to wonder if we were unable to communicate because concepts we took for granted were meaningless to our hosts and vice-versa. One case in particular struck me: Nearly everywhere we went, we asked our hosts to tell us how they prepared their budget or what rules they used to make trade-offs at the margins when faced with a scarcity of resources. We received, in return, long formal descriptions of the structure of budget-making but very little about its dynamics. Upon returning home, I discovered a possible explanation for our dissatisfaction in reading a chapter on socialist economics in Lloyd Reynolds excellent book, The Three Worlds of Economics (a chapter which should be required reading prior to a Soviet trip). Reynolds writes:

> "Marxian economics has remained pre-marginal. It has never been penetrated by the post-1870 doctrine of marginal choice, efficient resource allocation, and Pareto optimality. So when Robbins says that economics is the study of how scarce resources are allocated among competing uses, he is (to a Marxian) talking nonsense."

One of the most obvious characteristics a Western observer notes in the Soviet education system, as in other facets of Soviet society, is the existence of an explicit ideology and of a conscious effort to shape the political consciousness of students to that ideology. Our own ideology is mostly implicit, so much so that Americans appear to wear blinders in discussing or trying to explain our own society. Our political indoctrination occurs much more subtly at an early age in courses where we are taught the rules of the game and come to accept implicit liberalism and individualism as our operative political philosophy. It would be unthinkable for schools to propagandize in favor of a particular political party, but a Marxist would argue that it is all the same since we learn to accept a system of thought shared by both political parties. The Marxist would go on to argue that our own cherished first amendment freedoms only exist within the narrow (from their point of view) framework of accepted thought. The degree to which our youthful indoctrination succeeded was evidenced by the readiness with which we reverted to our grade-school descriptions of American freedoms (in an absolute sense) in the face of this argument and in our refusal to see that there is an accepted framework, defined by ideology, within which we operate. The failure of our Soviet friends, blinded at least as much by their own ideology, was in not seeing that our framework was in reality quite broad, much more so than their own, and that there are important benefits both in terms of human satisfaction and social innovation from the greater scope of thought permitted.

It is interesting to speculate on the degree to which the explicit ideology rather than Russian traditionalism actually guides Soviet education. Russia has never experienced a non-authoritarian system of government and it may be that the lack of criticism of the regime and the repressive political environment are at least as much the heritage of Russian history as of Soviet Communism. One of our Intourist guides exasperated by our questioning on a particular problem, finally said, "All right, what do you want me to do about it? I'll speak to Kosygin the next time I see him in the Kremlin!" I thought I detected in the response a theme which goes back several centuries beyond the Soviet era. The country simply has not had a tradition of political criticism. Indeed, the dominant impression is that the place of the Czar as little father has simply been assumed by the Soviet Government which treats its citizens in many respects as children.

We were assured that the right to criticize did indeed exist and was utilized frequently, but that only constructive criticism from informed people would be listened to. Thus the average teacher has no business criticizing government, economic policy, or foreign affairs, but criticism of his school's policies or those of the Ministry of Education is viewed, at least officially, as vital. However, even here the rule of Democratic Centralism holds: Constructive criticism is supposedly encouraged prior to the making of a decision; once a decision is democratically agreed to, no further criticism is allowed.

Soviet society and Marxist ideology stress equity at the expense of efficiency. In market economics, scarce commodities are allocated to consumers primarily on the basis of ability to pay. If demand exceeds supply, the price will increase until demand and supply are in equilibrium. In the Soviet Union, the price of an item represents primarily the cost of production and a "turnover tax" rather than an equilibrium based on the interraction of supply and demand. Scarce commodities whose cost of production is within the price range of most Soviet citizens are allocated primarily on the basis of first come, first serve rather than ability to pay. The queue rather than the market system determines who the buyers are.

The Soviet Union is in the process of building Communism, as we were often reminded by our hosts; it is not yet a Communist society. In such a society, true equality could be achieved: "from each according to his abilities; to each according to his needs." At the present time, Soviet citizens freely admit that inequality still exists within their country, though the range of inequality, at least in urban areas, appears to be somewhat narrower than in our own country. The advent of true Communism awaits both further economic development and the successful transformation of Soviet citizens to the image of "new Soviet man." It is the latter task in which the education system is engrossed, a task which to us looks like rigid indoctrination, but to good Marxists is a glorious and unique undertaking.

The Second World War is still very much in the forefront of Soviet thought. It is as though it happened yesterday, a trauma which every citizen shares and most emphatically does not wish to see repeated. Soviet leaders may quite rationally view the Chinese as their major potential enemy, but the people are more concerned still with the Germans. A history professor at a university told me, "There is no people that we dislike. It is the leadership of some countries that we hate, not their people. But I must say that the German people have had a long history of blindly following very hateful leaders."

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OBSERVATIONS ON A SOCIAL SYSTEM

(by Edith Grotberg)

One procedure for looking at a social system, without any necessity for value judgment, is to identify areas of apparent discrepancy and determine how the system responds to or accommodates to the discrepancies. Discrepancies do not necessarily emerge as a result of flaws in a system, nor do they need to indicate basic philosophic or conceptual errors. Rather, they may reflect the complexities of humans living in any social context as well as the new demands resulting from new opportunities, new problems, or new needs. It may, however, be appropriate to suggest that the viability of a social system is to a large extent gauged by the degree to which the system is aware of new or persistent discrepancies, and the degree to which it is able to resolve or accommodate to them.

The discrepancies identified here stem largely from the perspective of the educational system as perceived by one American educator. The awareness of the discrepancies and the responses to them are described primarily as a result of conversations and questions addressed to teachers, principals, methodologists, professors, students, researchers, and educational officials. The discrepancies are not presented in any order of importance, nor are they necessarily of equal magnitude.

They are listed below with some discussion, followed by a summary statement of synthesis and assessment. The areas of discrepancy in the Soviet social sytem, as perceived primarily from the perspective of the educational system, include the following:

1. Unpredictability within a planned society. A common reference is to the Plan, which may be educational, economic, or political. This Plan concept permeates most levels of the social system, and one perceives a totally planned society. But one is increasingly aware that there is greater unpredictability in the system. It appears in such small events

as not knowing until fifteen minutes after a trip should begin what bus is the appropriate one to board.

One does not know until after lunch what time dinner will be, and the plans for the next day are generally tentative. The unpredictability seems to be the result of a reluctance to let people have sufficient information to plan and predict on their own. The individual has difficulty planning ahead, and one is permitted to see parts of the plan only after it has been carried out.

An example of this at a very high level is the purchase of wheat from the United States. The people of Russia were generally ignorant of the problem of wheat, knew nothing about the plan to purchase wheat from the United States, and therefore were in no position to predict and plan.

2. Individual unaccountability within the collective. Great stress is placed on socialization of individuals; indeed, it is regarded as their major form of moral development. Socialization means for the individual to identify with the collective. This collective may be the other children in the nursery and kindergarten or the labor union of the factory. Social sanctions are tantamount to moral sanctions and the individual is thought to be molded in his upbringing by this process.

In many ways, however, the individual has been rendered unaccountable for his personal behavior and may engage in expressions of personal power which seem minor and even petty, but have far reaching consequences. Thus, an individual may have the key to a materials closet and no matter what the plea, he does not have to unlock the door.

Another individual finds a lost article in a vehicle for which he is responsible, and no amount of phoning or tracing makes the person available to reclaim the article. A phone of a high official may ring intermittantly for hours before anyone will answer it, and then the caller will be given incorrect information to terminate the calling.

A staff person will not show up at an agreed time, and no one seems to know where the person is or why he has not appeared. The net effect is for the individual to render the group helpless, and since most people engage in this behavior, there is no collective pressure to stop it.

3. Restricted information within a knowledge-oriented society. The eagerness for knowledge is apparent from the number of schools, continuing educational programs, and a great curiousity about new sources of information. The society is committed to increased knowledge and places extremely high value on it. However, the range and sources of knowledge are limited, and the uses of the knowledge are severely restricted. Thus, knowledge about countries beyond the Russian sphere of influence may not be gained by personal travel, study or, indeed even state-supported study.

Individuals who are older and who are "loyal to the system" may travel but must stay with fellow countrymen and are held under various forms of surveillance. Knowledge which is contrary to government policy may be obtained, but it may not be tested or used in experimental research.

The most avid interest is shown in the pursuit of knowledge about science, math, and languages. The behavioral sciences are generally seen as more suspect--as propaganda--and thus are kept under control and at the periphery of the knowledge sources and users.

4. Unavailability of materials within an autonomous educational system. Russia sees its educational system as complete, meeting all educational needs. There is great pride in the system and pleasure in showing it off. Yet, when talking to professors and officials,

one becomes aware that they do not have easy access to books and materials; they express great appreciation for any books or materials that might be sent to them. They are able to receive these things from other countries but seem to have great difficulty obtaining them through their own channels.

5. Individual differences: Limitations within a socialization (collective) educational training structure. The educational system has as a primary function the training of pupils and students into a collective identity. The curricula are controlled nationally and are the same all over the nation. Individual differences are recognized only as a way to determine needs and who will be selected for special training or encouragement to join a Pioneer Palace where special talents may be developed.

There is no room for individual differences which are not consistent with the collective line. Thus, no person may take a moral stand contrary to group approval. Morality is implicit in group approval. Older deviants from the system get drunk habitually; younger ones drop out of school and barter with tourists. Crime in the factories is a major focus of sociological studies for adults, as well as ways to reshape a collective where an undesirable leader (i.e., individualistic) has emerged.

6. Selected acknowledgement of learning theories within a pragmatic research methodology. Great value is placed on scientific methodology, and special research institutes devote their energies to studies relying on scientific methodology. The researchers are able to discuss them with ease and understanding. However, the major research efforts in education turn out to be pragmatic and empirical if they are compatible with the restrictions of the educational system. The net effect is a trial and error research methodology within a rigid ideological framework.

7. Elitism within a common educational system. Education is for everyone, and each person has equal access to it. Further, for the preschool and secondary school, the curricula are the same for all children in a given grade or form. In each of the institutions of higher education, similar curricula are found for similar programs.

The society, however, needs an elitist group to take on the leadership positions in various fields of endeavor, especially for education, science, math, and languages. Rather than employing advanced placement or special curricula for promising students, the curricula are simply presented earlier and in separate schools.

Theoretically, parents may choose to send their children to any school, but in practice, it is the better educated and more socially mobile parents who use the specialized schools. A measure of this fact is that some 90 percent of children attending the specialized schools go on to higher education while the overall percentage is closer to 30. The Pioneer Palaces tend to attract and hold talented children where their special talents are fostered and developed. The best materials and methods are used in the Pioneer system, and there is greater opportunity for individual development.

8. Family importance within school training and socialization for the collective. The family is greatly respected in the society, and there is much attention paid to its importance. However, the family is seen as an instrument to aid the state in the socialization of children for the collective. Parents are on councils, hold meetings, and even attend parent classes, but in each case, the intent is to educate the parents on how to rear their children for good citizenship; i.e., the collective.

Parents and families have few rights, but they are no threat to the system. Parents want their children to succeed and tend to conform without challenge. Indeed, the schools feel that they can take any child from any kind of a background and achieve the desired "up-bringing."

9. Historical past within an ahistorical present. The attention paid to restoration of pre-revolution palaces, museums, and cathedrals suggests an interest in historical continuity. Historical events are described in great detail. But it is not long before one is acutely aware that the historical past is completely separated from the present, i.e., the continuous ahistorical state of revolution.

The past is mocked and belittled even when the grandeur is pointed out. The past is simply a historical curiousity. The present began in 1917 and remains the present.

10. Euphoria of general State success within terror of destruction, leaks, or exposures. The Russian people on the whole are better off educationally and economically than they ever were before in their history. There is awareness of this fact, and the successes of the system are displayed and lauded. There is almost an euphoria about the system, so that it is difficult to find anyone within it who seems able to examine it critically. There are such people, of course, since it is quite clear that the system is manipulated at appropriate times either to reestablish a controlled stability or exercise a controlled flexibility.

The system has many of the characteristics of a fragile fantasy world deliberately separated and isolated from the rest of the world for fear of collapse at exposure or analysis. The need to issue extensive propaganda at airports, in buildings, and internationally is surpassed only by the fear of admitting any propaganda from other systems. The behavior belies the proclaimed faith in the system.

11. Discrimination within equal rights. The social system is built on the concept of equal rights, and legally this is a reality. It was clear, however, that Jews and Blacks do not have equal rights, especially when they make an effort to get out of the country. Travel is absolutely controlled and emigration largely forbidden. These discriminations are subtle but observable.

The most obvious discrimination is against women. They hold few top positions, and the higher one looks in any aspect of the educational, economic, or political system, the fewer women are found. The women are not fighting this fact; instead, they work as hard as the men to rationalize it. The reasons given are the extensive and heavy home duties of women.

The facts are that 90 percent of Russian women work; they have centers and services for their children as early as a few months; they have a minimum of housework. Many women claim they are worried that men do not treat them with respect, and this seems a more paramount concern than their rights.

The social system has achieved a great deal for the broad masses. The system, however, contains many discrepancies which are a strain on it. Some of these are being met through a controlled flexibility, but others are aggravated by a controlled rigidity. The social system cannot tolerate openness among different parts of it nor with the outside world. The people do not criticize the system, nor do they seem to feel they are missing a great deal. They have accommodated. It remains to be seen what happens as the society interacts increasingly with the rest of the world as it seems likely to do with the new international contacts at the higher levels of the system.

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THE SOVIET WOMAN

(by Eleanor Dolan)

Unremitting fear of war governs the State's perception of its needs and directs its search for power. Fear of war is a living presence. Children are taught it; young people never allowed to forget it (brides carry their flowers to war memorials); older people are constantly reminded of what they have suffered in it. It seemed that all were being taught that only overwhelming power can avoid future war. Equal to the fear of war seemed to be the public's fanatic determination to suffer if it has to and to win it at whatever cost if the nation is in danger. This public dedication is part of the national heritage long antedating Communism.

Information is a national government monopoly. It is the servant of the State to be distributed or withheld as the Communist Party decides. The significance of its power in all Soviet life and education cannot be overstressed. Only about 9 percent of the people are Communist Party members, but the Party rules.

Generally speaking, conditions of everyday life for the everyday Soviet person are said to be better -- that is, more comfortable -- than they were even five years ago. This seems to be especially the case for the urban dwellers. People are aware of these improvements, and this tends to make them accept the system as it is. Dissent comes from the intelligentsia, as it has in the past, and the State operates to eliminate this wherever and as fast as possible, and by any means. The individual or family income is small, but so are the fixed living expenses such as rent (from 4 to 6 percent of the monthly income).

Housing is quite inadequate from a western standpoint but better than in an earlier Soviet day. Many important life requirements are free or very low-cost -- such as medical care, insurance, vacations, pensions, and education. Thus, there is disposable income even on a minimum family income (80 to 120 rubles per month). There is not much in consumer goods to buy and what exists is sturdy, dull, and expensive. An automobile costs $10,000.00 and cannot be bought on the installment plan. Public attendance therefore at ballet, opera, theatre, sports, museums, circuses, and historic monuments is, to a foreigner, phenomenally high.

The individual must serve the State. He must be trained to serve, and this begins in the cradle. At the daycare center (not always entirely free but cheap) he gets his first experience in "collective action." This education for conformity continues through school-related and culturally-related political organizations: Octobrists, Young Pioneers, Komsomols and into adulthood, the trade union, residential, or other collective organizations. Soviet people are trained to account publicly for their actions -- families for their children (including their studies), children among children, and grown-ups among themselves in the collective organizations. "Upbringing" of the children is an active concern of the State from its highest to lowest level and a pervasive subject of discussion.

Manpower is still so needed by the State that every person, young mothers included, must work, and work to a greater or less degree as the State decides. This makes daycare centers and services essential for the State to provide, and this it is doing in increasing quantity. This has been the subject of decision at the highest level of State policy. Literacy (defined in the U.S.S.R. as ability to read or sign one's name) has increased into the 90 percentages, and young people are in compulsory schooling through the 8th grade with steps already taken to increase this to the 10th grade. Emphasis seems to be on education which would enable the individual to fulfill his obligations to the State.

Everyone must work from 2 to 3 years in assigned jobs after completing his education. There is no problem of employment -- though there is one of underemployment. Girls or young women do not have to be motivated to have a career outside as well as in the home, it is said; for they are educated to believe that this is the only way in which they can achieve personal fulfillment. Furthermore, the State needs their labor. The career they may follow is suggested by many agents, including parents and clubs connected with the school, but there are no vocational counselors in the American sense of the term. In many ways, the State makes the final decision anyhow (determining, for example, the number of entrance positions in higher education).

Among the first details an American would notice is that most elementary-secondary teachers are women (some records show them to be 70 percent) as are most preschool teachers, doctors (80 percent at least), dentists, and health paraprofessionals. Many school administrators are women but not in so high a proportion as teachers.

Coeducation is the pattern for the country. Women are free to study anything they wish but usually choose pedagogy, medicine, agriculture, or at the university level, the humanities rather than the hard sciences. Even so, the record shows between 30-40 percent of the engineers are women.

Higher education includes institutes and the universities (40-50 of them). In addition, there is the very advanced Academy of Pedagogical Sciences which is exclusively research oriented. There is some duplication of subject between institutes and the universities, but not much. Most teachers, for example, are trained at pedagogical institutes, although the Universities do produce a few. Research is done at the institutes (said to be usually "action research") and at the universities as well. Percentages of students to be allowed to study each subject, and the research to be undertaken, are decided by State officials in terms of State needs.

It is claimed that this matching works well -- at least, in terms of meeting State needs, though reported student efforts to get into the institution or program of his choice might raise some question about this. Admission to any higher institution is by examination both oral and written, and depends on success in passing them and other factors such as preparation, work record, record of work for society. Women are said to be about half the students in higher education, but their enrollment is known to differ between institutes and the universities. For example, women were only 25 percent of the undergraduates at Kiev University, though 50 percent of the graduate students. Women earn 50 percent of the candidate degrees there, also. Students receive both free tuition and scholarships which are proportioned to their academic success and their family's income. After completion of the higher education course, a position (said to be suited to his training) is found for the graduate by the university. The institution pays the graduate until this job is found, at least in Kiev.

Women are on the faculties in higher education. At pedagogic institutions, they may constitute 90 percent of the teaching force. At the university, 33 to 40 percent was the figure frequently mentioned for overall participation. Of these, however, 15 to 20 percent were said to be at the professorial levels. This number would vary with the subject field. Women are seldom institution-wide or faculty-wide administrators, although the Faculty Secretary at Leningrad is a woman. But women are often heads of departments (at Kiev, for example, 25 to 28 percent were heads of departments).

Their record in research and publication is said to equal that of their male colleagues, but at considerably greater cost. They take time out for child bearing, but usually not enough to interfere with their career progress. Despite official encouragement to enlarge families, one or two children are the custom today. (This may not be so typical in rural areas, although this is not a certainty.) Lack of housing and good child care as well as the obligations of a career outside the family are major reasons for size limitations.

Contraceptive resources and abortions are easily and safely obtainable. If women did stay at home several years, this would presumably limit their career progress, but over and over we were assured professional women did not want to be away from their careers. (Their living conditions do not encourage staying home!) The women said their greatest problem in advancing up the career ladder was to have enough time to run their homes and their families. Husbands do not yet share equally in home duties. The State recognizes this problem, and to assist the women, is stressing in the current Five-Year Plan the establishment of more "public services."

The trip was valuable professionally in many ways. For one, it strengthened my understanding of American education; for it forced me to question the value of our methods as I was examining the Soviet solution. In addition, it made much more understandable Soviet education which had hitherto been only partly understood or not fully estimated as part of the educational system to strengthen the State. Moreover, I made many new friends, and had the opportunity to see and admire world-famous art and architectural treasures.

Chapter II

EARLY CHILDHOOD AND PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

Our Moscow guide said at one point, "If there is a privileged class in the Soviet Union, it is the children." While a sociologist might protest that this overlooked the obviously privileged class we saw in the royal box at the Bolshoi or riding in sleek limousines at the Kremlin, the point has a great deal of truth. No one can deny that all the children we saw were beautiful, healthy, warmly clothed, and happy.

The new system of preschool and daycare facilities, which was established in the early 1960's, sets a standard toward which the United States could well direct attention. As a social class, Soviet children do receive some of the best fruits of the society. Indeed, the contrast between the commitment to children and the rather harsh realities of life for adults is striking. To American eyes, a generation gap is in the making which will be intriguing to watch over time.

Perhaps we could profit, however, by appreciating the obvious benefits in social health being gained by Soviet society from its investment in both children and family stability. The only blemish is that in this instance, as in so many we saw, the Soviets may be doing the right thing for the wrong reason. Daycare in the Soviet Union is designed to force women into the labor market by removing their prime excuse for staying home--childcare. In the headlong Soviet race to modernize, female labor is essential; no woman can be allowed to stay home if she is fit to work.

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DAYCARE THEORY AND PRACTICE

(by Harvey Yampolsky)

The first thing that strikes one about the educational system in the Soviety Union is its dual purpose. By definition, of course, its primary purpose is to educate people. However, complementing this objective is the important goal of "socializing" each child and youth into the Soviet system. . And, in the case of daycare centers, the third purpose is to care for the children of the country. Recognizing that a mere two weeks in the three largest cities of the U.S.S.R., plus visits to only a few such daycare centers, cannot possibly provide insights more significant than those which have already been made by others, I will nevertheless attempt to catalogue some of my personal observations regarding the three-fold role of daycare in the Soviet Union.

Turning first to the basic job of child care, I quickly became aware that, compared to the Soviet system, our own early childhood education is sadly deficient in performing this function. Since the Revolution, children in the U.S.S.R. have been treated as State treasures upon whom the future depends. The honest affection of the care-givers for their wards is readily apparent. The facilities are immaculate and show a lack of concern with expense. The furniture comes in assorted sizes reflecting the optimum for each age group. The age groups are kept segregated by year with their toys, schedules, and activities arranged accordingly. The cost to the parents is based upon income. The centers are open the entire year, and children can stay from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. Both food and medical services are provided.

The second function of daycare centers is education. Although learning the "three R's" is saved for elementary school, the older children at the centers are taught to paint, to dance, to sing, to understand traffic signs, and to distinguish spatial concepts. In their final year at the center, they are also introduced to the classroom situation, so that they will be prepared to start the traditional learning process when they enter school. In all aspects of this process, teaching aids are in good supply and probably rival, if not surpass, what we have available at our best nursery schools.

Finally, we come to the role of daycare centers in socializing children into the Soviet system. This careful process has its start at daycare centers but is an educational fact of life at all age levels in the U.S.S.R. To begin with, the very fact that the young child is removed at a very early age from an individualized family setting and instead spends his days, nap times, and in some cases, all his mealtimes in a communal setting with other children is certain to accustom him to see himself as a part of a larger group where his own free will has little effect on what he is doing at any particular point in time. His day is carefully programmed along with others in his age group. He learns that it is not only his parents who make decisions for him or upon whom he must depend for affection, but that the State, personified by the daycare center, performs these functions as well. It was obvious from the physical condition of the facilities and the behavior of the children in our presence that order and obedience were well-engrained concepts.

These observations, I believe, have considerable relevance to daycare in America. I do not intend in this short essay to involve myself in the debate between those who argue that the formative pre-school years are more important than the traditional school years in the learning process because they build the base upon which all else depends, and those who argue that this point of view results in the denigration of the elementary and secondary school years. However, it is clear that the Soviet position recognizes it is never too early to begin the process of developing and shaping personality, including the desire to learn. It is unlikely that very many people would argue against this proposition. But this view has not been reflected in public policy in the United States. I believe this is unfortunate, since a more elaborate daycare system with a program more comprehensive than merely custodial would do much to further the goal of true equality in educational opportunity.

Another relevant point alluded to earlier is the many innovative teaching aids which are utilized at the daycare facilities in the Soviet Union. While this is not a question of Federal policy (except insofar as better aids require additional expenditures which, if other sources are lacking, may be provided by Federal or State government), it is certainly an area where manufacturers of toys and teaching aids can learn much from the Russians.

Finally, I would caution that in regard to the social concepts to instill in children, the priorities and theoretical processes in America are considerably more attractive than the Russian. This, of course, relates to the overall political orientation of the countries. In our country, the emphasis is on ingenuity and individualism. Therefore, our educational process tries to encourage independent thought and curiousity. The Soviet system, on the other hand, would encourage other forms of thought and behavior, restricting curiousity and initiative to more narrowly defined areas.

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MOSCOW NURSERY SCHOOLS

(by Alice Scates)

In Moscow, we visited one of the 2,500 nursery schools in the city. This school was built in the midst of a neighborhood of high-rise apartments where the children lived. It accommodated about 280 children from ages 1½ to 7, although most of them seemed to be between 3 and 5 years.

Because of the Soviet shortage of trained working people, most of the women are employed. While it is not mandatory, apparently more than half of them leave their children in these nursery schools every day. The children are usually brought by their parents as early as seven in the morning and are picked up about six at night. If necessary, the children may remain overnight at the nursery school or board there by the week.

Those mothers whose children are not in nursery schools possibly stay at home, or they may leave their children in the care of neighbors or grandmothers. In fact, we heard from Dr. Darinski of the Adult Education Institute that the popular courses in Child Care and Development are attended mostly by grandparents. In any case, every woman is guaranteed a one-year maternity leave of absence from her job, and consideration is being given to making this two years.

The total cost of pre-school programs averages about 400 rubles per year for each child. Parents are charged a tuition fee depending on their income. Those earning less than the minimum wage (75 rubles or about $90 per month) receive services free. The charges for the nursery school range from 2 rubles (about $2.40) to 12 rubles (about $14.40) per month. Theoretically, the education is free; the charges cover the cost of meals for the children. At this particular school, the principal said that the parents' fees covered only one-third of the total budget for that school. The school operates year-round, but in the summer some of the older children are taken to camp outside the city. The charge then increases to 20 rubles per month.

The children are grouped by age. In this particular school, there are 12 groups. The average daily attendance is about 260 children, although about 280 are enrolled. Some 25 of them usually stay overnight.

The teachers receive special training for pre-school work, and there are two such pedagogical institutes in Moscow. There is one teacher to 20 of the very small children and one to 25 older children. The teachers work in two shifts -- 7:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m., and 1:00 to 6:00 p.m. There are also aides and nurses to assist each teacher.

We were shown through half of the rooms in the nursery school, but there were no children in any of them. All of the regular occupants were outside playing in the snow. Apparently, we were not taken into any rooms where there were children because of the possibility of infection as well as disturbance. Each room we saw was splendidly equipped and in perfect order. In fact, it was hard to believe that children actually lived and played in them, although the toys were really great. We were told that the children did indeed put things back in their proper places, but there were also aides who obviously must have done some additional tidying up to impress visitors. In addition to the best equipment I ever saw, there were also lots and lots of lush green plants which gave things a homey touch. (This was true almost every place we went.)

Since none of the children we saw appeared in any way handicapped, we asked about that. We were told that in the Soviet Union, every child is under medical supervision from the time he is born. Those who are in "weak health" may be sent to a sanitarium especially for young children, and there are also special nursery schools for those having speech defects. Since every mother is required to take her child for a periodic medical check, those who have defects can be identified, and treatment begun very early in life. It also means that the Soviets know exactly how many people there are in each category, which we do not.

Obviously the children were following a carefully controlled program, and discipline seemed to be instilled more from peer group pressure than from teacher influence. Even so, it is clear that the Soviet Union places a high priority on children. They obviously direct large portions of their childcare resources to health screening centers, nursery school facilities, summer camps, recreational activities, and various other support services. Even though the Soviet social system makes strong demands on children in terms of conformity and loyalty to the group, their value in that system is very high.

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A DETSKI SAD IN KIEV

(by Monica Blum)

We were greeted by Elizabeth Abramovna, a friendly, pleasantly plump woman who gave the immediate impression of warmth -- somewhat different from directors of some other centers we had visited.

Unlike our previous visits, rather than beginning with the besedka or conference, we first were shown the premises, beginning with the room for the one and two-year-olds. Upon entering the room, one is struck by the chill temperature -- quite unlike the overheated facilities I have visited in New York. The rooms in this particular facility were generally large and cheerful, and unbelieveably neat. It was not unusual to see 15 or 20 copies of the same toy lined up on a shelf -- so that each child would have his or her own.

I felt that personal possessions were emphasized at an early age, and this combined with the learning of various personal skills relating to daily life. For example, each child has his or her locker, bottle and towel -- all clearly marked, and very neatly placed.

We were taken upstairs to visit the older groups which were having lessons. I went into the room where five-year-olds were working on a lesson in decorative art. The teacher had tacked up a sample of what she wanted the children to do. It consisted of a white piece of paper with a border of dots, petals, and lines. The children were working with two primary colors -- red and yellow -- and used a paint brush and a wooden stick to make the dots. They all worked quietly and appeared to be most intent on what they were doing. I did notice one girl near me whose attention span was very short. She kept looking around and was attempting to copy from her neighbor. She was the only child in the group I noticed experiencing any difficulty in performing the task which the teacher had set before the children. The only real instruction the children received was the teacher's comment "to draw what is showed you."

Several of us decided to remain and engage the teacher, a young, friendly woman, in conversation. Upon looking around the classroom, I had been struck by the total lack of the children's work on the walls -- a common feature in most of the American nursery and daycare centers I have visited. We inquired about original, creative work, and the teacher took several things out of a cabinet. We were shown the class work on another theme, a fall scene, and there was very little difference among the drawings we saw.

Another piece of creative art work, the drawing of the universe, was also brought out for us to admire. It was obvious that some creativity went into this project. The teacher had merely cut out the shapes for the children, and they drew the universe as they imagined it. One did note, however, that they received some guidance or suggestions. A third project, the drawing of the aquarium in the classroom, was another example of copying what was before the children's eyes. After we had been conversing with the teacher for several minutes, the children started chattering among themselves. I was really delighted to see them behave as children and [illegible] stage angels. The teacher quickly brought them back to reality [illegible] a word or two.

We left the classroom and found the large room where our conference was to be held. There were some 25 little, hand-painted chairs, meant for the children, and it was from these cheery seats that we listened to the director. For the most part, what followed was a give-and-take session, during which we asked numerous questions to which Elizabeth Abramovna responded with humor and candor. We moved rapidly over the rather technical aspects of the curriculum of the school. We learned, for example, that the curriculum is set by the Ministry of Education for the Ukraine and that, during the school's existence (it was opened eight years ago), the curriculum had been changed once. That change made the language and mathematics instruction more complicated.

We then turned to the routine of the day. Simple lessons for the very young, which include musical studies and simple physical exercises, range from 10 to 15 minutes, while more complicated subjects for the older children, such as painting, arithmetic, modelling, and physical education, last for about 30 minutes. The children are served four meals a day -- breakfast, lunch, snack and dinner. The young ones take a 2½ to 3-hour nap and the "seniors" sleep for 1½ hours. Elizabeth Abramovna stressed that everything is carefully planned, including walks, excursions, and games. If the weather is bad, substitute programs are used including television and film strips.

We brought up the matter of parent involvement, and the director stressed that there is a great bond between the parents and the school. For example, if there is an evening festivity planned, or a Saturday tree planting, the parents most certainly would help. However, she made it quite clear that there was no parent involvement in the actual operation of the school, and only on rare occasions would a parent discuss a child's problems with the director or teacher.

We learned that children do misbehave, after all. "Children are children," and the director felt that fighting, on occasion, is not necessarily bad. She assured us that no child had ever been expelled from her school, and, in fact, she looked quite shocked when the question was posed. Personal habits and hygiene, although taught at home, are an integral part of the daily routine. The children are shown how to use potties, to wash and dress themselves and to look after their own affairs. In spite of the strict discipline which is so apparent, Elizabeth Abramovna did admit that she has not yet found a way to stop thumb-sucking.

The school we visited on this particular day is run by a warm, intelligent woman, in my judgement, who nevertheless rules with an iron hand. Not only does she command the respect of her staff, they also fear her. Programs are simple and lack imagination. Much appears to be left to common sense. There is very close supervision and an obvious lack of freedom. There are no children running around in the rooms or in the hallways; toys and work materials are carefully in place. The lack of freedom and imagination which is so apparent in Soviet society is taught at a very early age.

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NOTES REGARDING EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS

(by Martha Phillips)

Costs

The total cost of preschool programs averages 400 rubles per year for each child, according to the Deputy Minister at the Leningrad Board of Education. This contrasts with 1000 rubles annually for educating handicapped children and 600 rubles annually for boarding schools. Regular elementary/secondary schools spend between 100 and 110 rubles annually per child.

Parents are charged a fee for preschool programs, depending on their income. Those earning less than the "minimum" wage, 75 rubles per month, receive services free. The maximum charge is 16 rubles per month. When asked why elementary, secondary, vocational and higher education are free but preschool is not, the Deputy Minister replied that this charge was to cover the cost of food, since the children ate several meals a day at the preschool. (Elementary/secondary children likewise pay for lunches, except for those from low-income families).

At a preschool visited in Moscow, however, the directoress stated that the parents' fees met only one-third of the total budget for that preschool. She seemed to feel that this represented a typical situation.

In the summer, some children are taken out of the city to summer camp -- preschool style. The charge then increases to 20 rubles.

Enrollment

In Leningrad, according to the Deputy Minister, 100,000 children attend preschool. This is 10 percent of the total school population (i.e., one million), and 2.5 percent of the entire city population of 4 million. No figures were given regarding the percentage of children of working mothers this comprised (but since families in Leningrad tend to be small -- one or two children is the norm -- and since many women in the childbearing years would have been born during the "Great Patriotic War" and therefore comprise a smaller proportion of the total population than normal, 100,000 children in preschool would possibly be 50 percent or more of all children of preschool age).

Where are the children who are not in preschool?

This question raises many of the same concerns in the Soviet Union as in the United States. Depsite Lenin's writings on the rights of women and the overwhelming stress on equality and ability of women in every sector of economic life, men and women alike point, in the Soviet Union, to the important role of the mother in the "upbringing" of children. Many mothers who can afford to do so quit their jobs when children are born. One year's leave with guaranteed job reinstatement is assured, and efforts are underway to extend this to two years. Mothers from well-off families often prefer to stay home until children are old enough for school (age 7) and "teach" their children themselves. Although this educational function is frequently mentioned, one gets the distinct impression that cognitive skills are not the major reasons for parent's concern, but rather like parents the world over, they are worried about their children's emotional development. Indeed, mothers who must work seek out many alternatives to preschool -- "babushkas" or grandmothers, neighbors or other relatives, who form an informal network of child care similar to that used by many working mothers in the U.S.

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STUDENT DISCIPLINE

(by Barbara Downey)

I found the children in the schools to be extremely well-disciplined and conscientious, traits that seemed to be instilled as much from peer group pressure as from the teacher influence.

Principals, teachers, and even students found it difficult to speak of any disciplinary, personality, or emotional problems that existed in the schools. It was not a question of their not being able to identify problems. For them, the problems often did not exist.

This very strict, regimented control of the students begins at the kindergarten and nursery level, possibly as early as three months. In a discussion with the principal of one kindergarten in Moscow, the matter of weaning and thumb-sucking was discussed. In the Soviet Union, mothers of infants sent to a nursery come every three hours during the day to feed their children. After the age of 12 months, the child is drinking from a cup. We mentioned that in the United States, an infant is weaned gradually, being put on a bottle, given a pacifier, and perhaps sucking his thumb for a while. The principal laughed when asked if she had problems with thumb-suckers. She simply said it is not a problem -- the children do not suck their thumbs. However, a two year old child was observed crying when a nurse pointed out something he did incorrectly. The child made gestures to suck his thumb. These gestures were firmly countered by the nurse's hands.

When asked if she had any disciplinary problems with the children crying frequently or stealing, she again denied that there were such problems. Of course, hers was one of the best kindergartens in Moscow. Nonetheless, it did seem to be the case that they would tolerate little in the way of behavior outside the norm established. In fact, as a corrective disciplinary measure in one school, an unruly student was not permitted to wear the uniform as a punishment and so was disgraced in the eyes of his classmates that day -- quite the opposite of the gratification accorded a student in the U.S. who is permitted to dispense with his uniform and wear individual clothes.

There did seem to be much of this surprise on the part of the Soviets when we were asking problematic questions. This principal could not understand how or why we could be so concerned about seemingly nonexistent problems to them. A young girl at the English-speaking secondary school was likewise uncomprehending when asked if any of the young people did not want to join the Pioneers because they might have doubts about its worth and effectiveness for the individual. She became very anxious; a teacher came to her rescue and asked us to repeat the question. The teacher smiled at the question, calming the girl down. She then said "It is not an issue. The Pioneers and the Soviet children believe in peace, truth and friendship so why should they have any doubts? It is like choosing between good and evil. There is no question as to which is better and should be chosen."

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EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION RESEARCH

(by Barbara Downey)

At the Kiev Research Institute of Pedagogy, we held a discussion with the woman who is head of the early childhood and preschool education division of research. The following conversation ensued:

What is the correlation between research and contact with parents about what they feel should transpire in the classroom? Evening classes are held for parents in psychology and other areas. Parents often write to newspapers about courses they would like to see introduced.

What is the influence of scientific research work on pre-school education? Research is used to devise programs for kindergartens, to write recommendations for teachers to use, to find the optimal way for children to study, to devise timetables, to help with construction of kindergarten buildings, playgrounds and sports areas.

Has any research been done comparing children brought up in kindergartens and those brought up at home? Yes. There are good and bad points on both sides with regard to personality development and attitudes as well as achievement. It very much depends on the family -- if time is spent with the child, he will be good.

Social opinion is very important -- not only what the teacher thinks about the child but what the peer group thinks about him. This opinion is arrived at through games. If children do not want to play a game with a child, he will feel extremely bad, since he wants his peers to like him. The teacher's attitude toward this child greatly influences the peer group attitude toward him. There have been studies done of groups -- studies in different ages and studies in different groups in one age.

The study of group dynamics is a new area of research. For example, it has been found that when one child is a bad leader, there is usually another child in the group who could competently be a leader but who does not show his positive qualities. Research has been undertaken to develop the qualities of this child who has the positive orientation and to lessen the control of children who might otherwise exercise too much influence. This is done by an adult, the teacher, in such a way as not to be noticed by the children.

For example: A teacher knows what kind of games are popular with the children. The teacher then forms groups based on these interests. This is not done by force. These games are used to bring out the child with the positive character, to organize around this game for encouragement. This can be done to stop aggressive children, or those who talk too much, those who are dishonest or those children who pick up features of a bad leader. This is new research and has not been introduced into practice.

How do you evaluate the effectiveness of the research? The guidelines are what you expect children to do at certain ages.

What do you feel about sex roles in pre-kindergarten education? Teachers do not choose games for children. Boys will be taught to clean tables and wash dishes. However, we are not encouraging men to teach in preschools since women are more like mothers for these children.

Have there been any changes in pre-school education within the past 10 years? Yes. Based on research work to show that children can cope with more theoretical work. The elementary school changes their programs and so preschool changes also -- as recently as 1972.

Do you have longitudinal programs to test long-term effects of new and old programs? Yes.

Do you have longitudinal descriptive studies as to what children are capable of at a given age? In the U.S. we do not have that specific idea. Do you know these or do you force an activity on them? The abilities of children at this or that age are most important.

Are naturalistic studies done where you just observe children -- as an infant babbling to show how this relates to language development? Yes, psychologists do these kind of studies.

Chapter III

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

Everyone in the Soviet Union works. The impact of this simple statement may take some time in coming. The implications are that virtually the entire educational system is designed to produce industrial workers. While this reduces the number of dilettantes, it also reduces the number of humanists, philosophers, artists, and musicians.

Creativity is impeded, except in areas directly related to production. Technological workers, including those in medicine, therefore are given admirably free reign to improvise and extrapolate. By contrast, novelists, poets, historians, dancers, and composers are rigorously controlled in their flights of imagination and fancy.

Career education exists to the extent that everyone knows he must hold a job to survive. There is no leisure class, and students must relate their learning to earning. Yet, paradoxically, the elementary and secondary education curriculum is almost entirely academic and abstract with only the most passing reference to job skills. Only upon leaving secondary school do students enter job-related training. The models of Soviet education are those of western Europe and England. Educational innovation and reform are only abstractions, concepts to be discussed and researched, perhaps, but hardly implemented with dispatch.

The Soviets have apparently been successful in eliminating competition among students as an important motivating factor. They have substituted the idea of having able students help other students who need it. The group psychology which dominates all Soviet life has, in the secondary school, produced a great sense of community. Team spirit dominates student classwork rather than individual competition for grades. The amount of peer teaching going on is impressive, and the educational reinforcement this represents is effective.

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U.S.S.R. MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
(by Cora Beebe)

We were received at the Soviet Ministry of Education in Moscow by Mr. Ivanov, Assistant Director for School Management. He was accompanied by Mr. Cheroch, a young specialist in foreign affairs. Mr. Ivanov addressed us in Russian; Mr. Cheroch said little, although he spoke fluent English.

Mr. Ivanov, reading from notes, provided the group with a brief background of the major policies concerning elementary and secondary education. Just recently, a goal was established to provide ten years of education to all citizens. The problem they are addressing now is how to make it compulsory in all parts of the country. They estimate that this will be a reality by 1975. At the present time, 65 percent to 70 percent of children at age seven are expected to complete ten years in formal school settings; 30 percent to 35 percent will complete it through evening school or technical school which they enter after eight years of general secondary education.

In 1967, a new curriculum including textbooks was adopted in all schools under the direction of the Ministry of Education. The objectives of this major reform were several: update the content consistent with new knowledge; lessen the amount required to be learned by the students (this was the result of teacher observations that the requirements were too high and too much homework resulted); eliminate overlap; cut down required courses and increase optional subjects. At the same time, elementary school was reduced from 4 years to 3 years, and fundamental courses in basic learning were started earlier. New courses were introduced in areas of art, music, and the humanities, radio technology, applied chemistry, and physics. All students in the 9th and 10th grades get some form of job experience or practical training.

The last subject to be changed in this major reform was math. Changes were made through the 7th grade only. They involved the most skillful scientists and mathematicians in this curriculum change. It marked the beginning of scientists rather than methodologists preparing text materials, as was the traditional practice for the past 25 years. This is a common occurrence today.

One objective in support of major curriculum reform is to provide every teacher with a complete set of supporting materials to accompany and elaborate the new curriculum. These materials are to include films, supplementary readings, etc.

An important goal is to increase the professional qualifications of teachers. Ivanov's view is that the problem of education is teaching and not learning. They have evaluation data which suggest that teachers who are trained and teach in only one subject are more effective than those who are trained and teach in two or more.

At the elementary level, the Ministry of Education provides the curriculum and general guidance. The process of education is determined locally. At the secondary level, the Ministry of Education coordinates all the similar ministries at the republic level. Very specific instructions in curriculum and process are provided in the universal subjects such as math, language, etc. This includes the provision of text materials and involves technical assistance. National tests are given in these areas and special competitions are held with rewards to best students. Each republic is given a wide measure of control over non-universal subjects and is encouraged to include special features and native languages.

The changes which are introduced into the schools by the Ministry of Education come from the Pedagological Institute. It is the responsibility of the Pedagological Institute to evaluate the effectiveness of new curriculum, text materials, and teaching techniques, then communicate the effective ones to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education determines if, when, and how the changes are to be introduced.

The Ministry of Education prepares a five-year budget (probably based not on goals and objectives, but rather by object class, from what we could tell). The goals and objectives, broadly stated, appear to be determined by the Party. The Gosplan Agency, like our Office of Management and Budget, determines the funds available. From an informal question at the end of the session, one got the impression that the Ministry requests considerably more funding than it gets and its mix of activities changes as fluidly as ours do from one year to the next. The idea of a 5-year plan being approved with only modest changes from year to year does not appear to be a reality in the Soviet system. The statement of goals and objectives remain more constant, but not the budgeting for them.

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INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND RECOGNITION OF TALENT

(by Stafford Smiley)

Alexander Ivanovich Konodo, the principal of the Moscow academic elementary-secondary school, seemed pleased to answer the question, and the group of Americans perked up at the prospect of getting at something in which we were all very interested: Soviet approaches to the problem of differential abilities among students. According to what I had read on the Russian educational system, a basic precept (in fact, a sine qua non of the whole system of Soviet education) was that every child was equally endowed and equally capable of achieving academically.

Furthermore, the Soviet system was supposedly structured to insure that no differences among children emerged as a result of differences in the quality of the education which the children received in the schools. At least at the elementary and secondary levels, the children in schools throughout the U.S.S.R. were to receive as "equal" education, with the curriculum, teaching methods, and all other aspects of the educational process set for the whole nation by the Ministry of Education and related agencies in Moscow.

Alexander Ivanovich, on the contrary, stressed the differences that existed among children and stated that the need to meet the individual needs of each student appeared to be one of the major problems facing Soviet educators at the present time. At first, he seemed to be suggesting that his school had even introduced some kind of ability grouping in its efforts to meet these individual needs. But as the conversation progressed, it became clear that he was really talking about what we would call individualized instruction: the teacher in each classroom must pay attention to the individual needs of each of the students and attempt to bring each student along with the rest of the class as it progresses through the program.

Nonetheless, his primary concern seemed to be that all the children progress along the same road together -- that is, that they all fulfill the prescribed, 10-year school curriculum. The children themselves were enlisted in the common effort, with the better and the older students taking the responsibility for helping younger and less able students to keep up. Within the regular academic school, then, there seemed to be little diversity and little stress on the individual talents of students. Everyone travelled the same, centrally-prescribed curriculum at the same speed. A number of people we talked to indicated that an attempt was being made to allow Soviet students more elective courses and more chance to tailor their courses of study to their own interests. But all told, the curriculum continued to allow little scope for such individual initiative.

If the general academic school seemed, however, to reflect the philosophy that children were of equal ability and should be treated equally, it soon became evident that a very different philosophy was embodied in a whole complex of institutions parallelling and, in many cases, supplanting the regular elementary-secondary schools. I spent a lot of time, for instance, in the Pioneer Palaces, and it became clear to me that a major purpose of these Palaces was to offer specialized training to students with special interests or special aptitudes.

Usually, this specialized training served to channel the child toward a career in his specialty. A biology "club" at the Central Pioneer Palace in Kiev was conducted exactly like a course in biology, complete with a curriculum supplied by the Ukrainian Ministry of Education -- except that it provided a much deeper understanding of the subject than could be acquired in the classroom. Other clubs featured far less academic activities -- clubs in ballet or model shipbuilding, for example -- yet all pursued their objectives with similar intensity according to standards laid out by central authorities. And many were quite explicit in their career orientations.

The director of the electrical-technical laboratories at the Kiev Pioneer Palace stated outright that the purpose of his program was to take young people with both an interest and some talent for electro-technical skilled labor and to channel them, via specialized training, into work or higher education in the field. He showed us a neatly-lettered poster on the wall next to the blackboard at the front of the room: Opportunities when you leave this program -- university, technical college, postsecondary vocational school, a factory . . . .

Everyone at the Central Pioneer Palace in Kiev staunchly maintained that entry into the "clubs" was strictly voluntary; their counterparts at the Central Pioneer Palace in Moscow equally clearly stated that the central palace was designed to serve the most talented children from all over the city in their specialties. Although we were not entirely successful in our attempts to find out just how students make their way into the programs at the Pioneer Palaces, I came via a circuitous route to the conclusion that students in the schools choose to enroll in the "clubs" with the help and guidance of their teachers and representatives of the Pioneer Palace organization who are present in every school.

In many cases, I suspect the basic process at work is that teachers select their most able students and channel them into the Pioneer Palace clubs through the "voluntary" selection apparatus. Our guide at the Moscow Palace did say that in some areas, such as painting or dance, prospective members of the club are required to demonstrate their talents before being allowed to enroll.

The Pioneer Palace apparatus exists outside the normal school system. In fact, its separation from the schools is maintained up to the point that members of Pioneer Palace "clubs" remain in exactly the same classes in their regular schools as all their classmates -- despite the fact that they may have advanced far beyond the level of those classes in their special work at the Pioneer Palace. In other cases, however, special elements of the school system are designed to prepare certain students for special purposes.

The language schools, like the English language school which I visited in Leningrad, are one type of special school. They prepare students according to the regular elementary-secondary curriculum but with emphasis laid on learning one foreign language. There are extensive language classes, and in addition, starting in the equivalent of junior high school, regular classes are conducted entirely in the foreign language,

One of the young Soviets introduced to us in Leningrad, in addition to doing research in physics at the University of Leningrad, taught at a special school for gifted children. Apparently, there are four such schools in the U.S.S.R., one each in Leningrad, Moscow, Kiev, and Novosibirsk. Their purpose is to give intensive training to especially gifted youngsters to foster their talents and thus to train needed specialists in high-priority fields. From my impressions of this young Soviet and from his remarks on his work at the school, I would say that the school operates at a very high academic level indeed -- and that it receives substantial support from the state.

Starting at the level of the ninth grade, there is also the extensive and rather diverse network of professional-technical schools which give vocational training in a wide range of fields at both secondary and postsecondary levels. These schools exist as an alternative and supplement to the regular secondary education available in the 10-year schools. They take young people out of the regular curriculum -- usually at the point of completion of the eighth grade or graduation from secondary school -- and train them in highly specialized vocations, whether as skilled laborers, technicians, or engineers and professionals.

In summary, it seems to me that the Soviets, having paid tribute to the equality of all students before an inflexible curriculum in the regular system of elementary and secondary schools, have developed a complex and sophisticated network of supplementary institutions founded on diversity among students, designed to make use of special aptitudes and skills to channel children from a rather early age into professions and careers needed by the State and the State economy.

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THE EXCEPTIONAL STUDENT AND SLOW LEARNER

(by Philip Rosenfelt)

Many of the school buildings we visited were painted in a factory gray or brown, implying a cold routine and uniformity. As we entered the classrooms, often poorly lit, the Soviet citizens of the future rose in unison.

The lessons we observed were characterized by sing-songy group exercises, precise and formal discussions, and strict recitation. It was not that the teachers lacked warmth. On the contrary, they offered sympathetic pats of encouragement whenever possible. Nor are the children solemn or stilted; outside of the classrooms, the halls buzzed with the sounds of vitality. But inside, the lessons pressed on, procedures fed by strict self-discipline.

Is there room for the individual? What about the slow student, or the one who isn't well motivated by the classroom? What about the student who just doesn't fit into the group? How are these children dealt with?

Most of the time these questions were misunderstood by the Russian educators. They usually responded, "Oh, you mean the child who is mentally retarded or physically handicapped; well, he is sent to a special boarding school." I thought the misapprehension perhaps could be explained by the language barrier -- just a matter of words -- or maybe the problem just didn't exist to any great degree.

I tried the question in a slightly different form. "Do you have special remedial classes for those who can't keep up with the regular classwork?" The usual answer was a puzzled expression. After a few more attempts at describing what I meant, finally an answer came, "No, we don't have any such classes."

Eventually, at an English language school in Kiev, we learned that -- naturally enough -- there are some students who fall behind the others, and their problems are not neglected. They are treated in a number of ways.

In some cases, the classroom teacher acts as a tutor, working with the child before and after class. But more often, the teacher will select a tutor from a group of the brightest students in the class.

Each class is divided into rows or sets of students, and the educational performance of the group as a whole is evaluated. The poor performance of one member of the group is a reflection on the others, and the members of the group are eager to help each other. Therefore, the most common and least formal manner of help for the slow student is provided from within the group.

If the child is in the habit of coming late to class, his group members will stop by his house on the way to school to make sure he is on time. If the student doesn't do his homework, the group will select a member to go to his house and help him; or if the child is a poor mathematics student, the group's best math student will work with him.

Other methods of getting help for the lagging student are by hiring a private tutor (an illegal remnant of capitalism) or by joining a hobby group related to the child's problem at the local Pioneer Palace. In addition, the membership requirements for joining and staying in the Pioneer Palaces -- generally studying well, behaving in class, and being adept socially -- may give the child the incentive he needs to improve on his own.

If the child is actually handicapped ("those with less than normal faculties") the Soviet system resorts to a separate remedial-type facility. The physically or mentally handicapped are placed in special boarding schools that treat the specific handicap for the entire ten-year period of general education. The child is given constant medical attention and highly individualized educational treatment. For example, in a typical special boarding school in Leningrad, there is a staff of 160 for 320 children. But even this specialized treatment is considered terminal because the handicapped are expected in due course to take their places as productive members of the society and the national economy.

Although the line between the mentally handicapped or retarded and the emotionally disturbed is very difficult to draw, the latter are treated very differently by the Russian educational system. Since World War II, the emotionally disturbed child has been taught in a regular school, because it was felt that isolating these children and placing them together in a special school was psychologically harmful. This reasoning seems to be the same as that applied to the decision not to isolate the slow student who in the United States is apt to be put into remedial classes. In extreme cases, however, where the regular school cannot cope with the behavior problems of the emotionally disturbed child, he is sent to a sanitarium for a one-year period to afford him more individual attention.

Generally, the treatment of the child who is a problem student is characteristic of the group emphasis given by the Soviet system to all endeavor. The child is rarely separated out; he is almost always treated as a member of a group, so that he will later fit into the larger society as a productive unit of the economy.

As a result of these group dynamics, the Soviet child rarely has to compete entirely on an individual basis during his elementary and secondary school years. Therefore, the Russian elementary school may be a warmer place than it seemed at first. The answer is unclear. The group ethic can be friendly and stimulating. On the other hand, it can lead to uniformity and a lack of creativity. Russian educators have begun to recognize the importance of allowing more flexibility and individuality in the classroom. In 1967, new curriculums and textbooks were introduced into the system. These aimed at reducing the number of required courses while increasing the range of electives, abolishing repetition, and generally easing the work load on the students, thus giving them more time for activities such as technical workshops and hobby groups of their choice at the Pioneer Palace.

In addition, more emphasis is being placed on the humanities. Teachers are being encouraged to get a broader education and they are relying more upon audio-visual aids in the classroom. Children now have the opportunity to develop their special skills at schools for the arts and foreign languages, such as the English language schools we visited in each of the three major cities.

The Assistant Director of School Management at the Soviet Ministry of Education in Moscow told us that these changes have come about because the Soviet economy has now developed to the point where it can afford to allow non-practical pursuits by its students. Of course, he reminded us that the influence of the Communist Party in the national and local educational systems has not diminished. The presence of a Party member at his side as he spoke, and a Party member (usually the assistant principal) observing just about every meeting we had with a Soviet school official proved that the needs of the party are still supreme.

The changes, although still on a minor scale, are a hopeful sign that the restrictive atmosphere of the classroom will be replaced by more and more flexibility, individual initiative, and academic freedom. The Russian educational system, once tied by necessity to the military and economic needs of the society, is beginning to warm to the needs of the individual. An interesting time in Russian educational history lies ahead.

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ASPECTS OF EXCELLENCE IN SOVIET EDUCATION

(by Richard Siegel)

As a member of the subgroup devoted to Soviet elementary and secondary education, I returned from the trip much impressed with two features of the Soviet system. One was the excellent training that Soviet pupils receive in foreign languages such as English. The other was the phenomenon called the Young Pioneers movement, to which practically every school child between age 11 and age 14 belongs.

Both the foreign language training and the Young Pioneers are unlike anything to be found in the American school system on such a broad scale. They were interesting to observe in their own right because both programs enjoy considerable emphasis within the Soviet school system. They also are worthy of study because of what they reveal about the overall Soviet society that developed them in response to felt needs.

English Language Training

Our first exposure to the Soviet system for teaching English was meeting our two Intourist guides, Natasha and Alicia, just after landing in Moscow and entering the airport terminal building. Their American-style English was flawless with only a slight trace of a Russian accent. Soon we learned that both of them had been trained as English teachers and had taught before they became Intourist guides. Naturally they learned their English entirely within the Soviet Union. Neither had ever lived in an English-speaking country, although as guides they were constantly conversing with English-speaking tourists to the Soviet Union.

In Moscow, in Kiev, and in Leningrad, we were taken to see secondary schools where English is not only taught as a specific subject but is also the language of instruction in courses such as history, literature, and economics. Our guides at these schools were students in the 8th, 9th and 10th forms who all were amazingly at ease with English.

These were showcase schools, of course, and schools oriented toward English language studies in any event. But I saw other aspects of the foreign-language study picture during the tour which convinced me that the Soviet schools generally are putting considerable emphasis into foreign language training.

In the Kiev Pioneer Palace, I sat in on an after-school English conversational club of seven or eight members plus a highly-skilled teacher. Some of the youngsters attended English-speaking schools during normal school hours; others in the group were from regular schools and merely took English as a separate course. All wanted to perfect their English and were going at it. That day, they were listening to a teaching record that was giving them idioms such as "He gave me a cold shoulder" and "Don't stand on ceremony."

These youngsters, too, were a select group who had earned the right to attend their Young Pioneer clubs at the central Pioneer Palace, rather than at a less elaborate Pioneer House in their neighborhood. They were interested in various professional careers such as law and engineering, where English would be useful to know, they told me.

But even in a Leningrad vocational school designed to produce draftsmen and metalworkers from a nearby heavy industrial plant, there was a fully-equipped language lab, and every student in the school was expected to use it to keep up with English or whatever one's foreign language was.

It was not hard to understand why Soviet education has placed such an emphasis on foreign language study. The Soviet Union has been in a headlong race to industrialize, and this has meant that its technological workers have had to be able to study the scientific literature of the Western countries.

But in another sense, the great emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages such as English was a paradox. For the young Soviet citizen who learns English will have exposure only to carefully screened material in English. Most of the English books available will be published especially for Soviet consumption within the Soviet Union itself, not freely imported from England or the United States.

Soviet pupils in an English class learn about Shakespeare's writings and about the landmarks of London such as Buckingham Palace and the Tower Bridge. But alongside these pictures on a classroom poster will be a picture of a demonstration staged by the Communist Party in Great Britain, or a large photo of Karl Marx's grave in London. The caption under the picture of the demonstration I saw read, "The Communist Party in Great Britain does not have a large membership, but it is well known to the working class in the country."

Similarly, there are usually two posters about America found in the English classrooms. One poster will show the Statue of Liberty, Grand Canyon, Empire State Building, and Golden Gate Bridge. The other poster will show "American Imperialism in its Reality," featuring police beating up peace demonstrators and civil rights demonstrators.

So, while English is taught for very functional reasons -- and extremely well taught, in my opinion -- it is not going to be useful to the young Soviet man or woman as a way of truly learning more about the life of English-speaking countries. It is only to be an instrumentality for the building of the Soviet State within very prescribed intellectual boundaries.

The Young Pioneers

Imagine if the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts were combined into one mass organization for boys and girls from 11 to 14 with membership and attendance well nigh compulsory. And imagine, too, that this universal youth organization was given virtually all the good after-school recreational facilities and personnel in the whole country to carry out its program.

This is the Young Pioneers Movement in the Soviet Union. However, it is not intended to be purely an after-school program. In every secondary school, there is a Young Pioneer room, and Pioneers wear their red Pioneer neckerchiefs throughout the school day. Moreover, a Pioneer is expected to help his fellow students keep up with their school work. Even to be a Pioneer, theoretically at least, a student must "do well in school."

Each school of a Soviet city has a Pioneer room for after-school sports and various hobby clubs. But the most elaborate facilities are housed in central Pioneer palaces, where the most specialized classes and laboratories are held. The central Pioneer Palaces truly deserve their titles as palaces. The one for Moscow's youth occupies a choice location in the Lenin Hills section near the State University and is a sprawling contemporary structure. The Kiev Pioneer Palace is also contemporary in design and tremendous in size. The Leningrad Pioneer Palace actually occupies a former nobleman's palace in the heart of the city.

The Kiev Pioneer Palace, where some of us spent the better part of a day, has an enormous front lobby and impressive public areas decorated with bright mosaic tile murals. It has an endless series of classrooms and laboratories. In progress during our afternoon visit were classes in folk dancing, English, biology, telegraphy and radio-electronics. The classes were mostly small, with only seven to eight members, and all had at least one teacher. Some had teacher aides as well.

As with practically everything we saw of official Soviet institutions, the Young Pioneer movement is an integral part of Soviet ideology. It fosters group activities and group solidarity. It develops the skills and talents of the Soviet citizen of tomorrow. It is an incubator for the leadership elite who will be the active members of the Komsomol, the junior branch of the Communist Party that Soviet youth enter from the Pioneers at age 14.

But certain features of the Young Pioneers commend themselves to our attention in the United States. The adolescent years from 11 to 14 pose difficult educational and emotional problems for American youngsters individually and for the institutions set up to serve them, such as the junior high school. The Soviet Union appears to have found a way to harness the energies of their adolescent boys and girls and channel them into a range of worthwhile after-school activities.

Moreover, in a society where 90 percent of the mothers hold full-time jobs, Soviet mothers and fathers know that their adolescent children have a fine place to spend their time after school, instead of roaming the streets, bored and restless, the way adolescents of other countries have a tendancy to do in that difficult stage of their life. Many American parents would probably like the same assurance. Few parents can force their adolescents to go anywhere in particular after school, but through the Young Pioneers movement, Soviet parents can look to the State to supervise most of the after-school time of their adolescent children. This is a phenomenon that should receive some serious discussion in the United States.

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A SPECIALIZED ENGLISH LANGUAGE SCHOOL IN LENINGRAD

(by Keith Hartwell)

It has 718 students, 42 teachers, and there are 20 subjects taught there. English was taught from the 2nd form. This school had an international bias to it. It was a cooperative member of the Great Britain-Soviet Union Friendship Society and one of the associated schools of UNESCO. The students maintain correspondence with schools around the world (both students and teachers). They have had four exchange teachers from the United States for a semester each.

The school is in session from September first to the end of May. The students take examinations twice -- once after the 8th form and once after the 10th form. If students move out of the neighborhood, they still continue to attend this school.

A number of the students gave a talk on the school's Young Pioneer Brigade (10-14 years of age). The main task of a Pioneer is "to study hard and help his friends who don't study so hard." He must be patriotic, learn the history of his country, and take care of war invalids.

Octoberists are the younger student Communist equivalents of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd form. There is a big brother and big sister relationship between the Pioneer and Octoberist groups. As with others elsewhere, the local Pioneer group was named after a hero of the "great Patriotic War" (i.e. World War II).

The students in this school have actually made visits to schools in foreign countries: in 1965 and 1969 to England; in 1970 to Hungary and Poland; in 1971 to Czechoslovakia twice, and in 1972 to East Germany. They even have a sister city -- Manchester, England -- with which they exchange Christmas gifts.

10th Form Classroom

A question was asked as to what future plans the students had. We received the following responses:

--Wants to enter a technical institute and be an engineer because his parents are engineers

--Enter the Math curriculum at the University
--Enter the school for military training (Navy) because of travel
--Enter the Linguistics curriculum at the University
--Enter the History curriculum at the University
--Enter the Geography curriculum at the University
--Enter the Institute of Foreign Languages
--Wants to be a Merchant Seaman.

These answers were spontaneous and off-the-cuff. While in a Russian school this was one of the few unprepared presentations that we saw.

Q. How do the students pick their professions?
A. Among other things, the school organizes talks by professionals in various fields who explain these professions. It also organizes excursions to enterprises to see what they are like. Each Institute has a catalog similar to ours. It is on sale in all the shops.
Q. What percent of students go on to higher education?
A. 98 percent go on to some form of higher education. Last year 57 were graduated, and only four did not go on.
Q. How are students selected to go to this school?
A. We have micro areas. There are three or so schools in each area, some special, some common. The parents choose which one they want their children to attend.
Q. Is there a coordinator for extracurricular activities?
A. No. The Pioneer Palace does send in people to talk about the various hobby groups.
Q. How do you hire teachers?
A. The Principal hires.
Q. Do you teach as a Principal?
A. Yes, English two periods a day.
Q. Do you have any kind of comprehensive testing programs?
A. No. Just the two sets of exams (in the 8th and 10th forms). These results are given to the Minister of Education, so he has a collection of results from all over the country.
Q. Do you provide scholarships?
A. There is no charge at any stage of the educational process. Many University students are given stipends.
Q. Do the students pay for lunch?
A. Yes (65 kopecs a week). If a child comes from a large family, he is helped with this cost.
Q. Do you teach French here?
A. Yes. This French curriculum was given to us as an experiment. We begin it in the 7th form.
Q. How do you help students not doing well?
A. There is a group of good students who volunteer to help those students falling behind in their studies.

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PIONEER PALACES

(by John Jennings)

Some of my most vivid impressions of the Soviet Union are of visits to the Pioneer Palaces in Moscow and Leningrad. Although these two palaces were undoubtedly among the best in the Soviet Union, our visits did give us some overall exposure to the Soviet system of after-school education.

It seems that every district (ward) in the cities has its local pioneer house and that the largest cities also have central Pioneer Palaces for the cities of Moscow and Leningrad.

All the palaces are operated as activities of the youth organizations of the Communist Party, and it seems that in order to come to the palaces one has to be a member of the Young Pioneers or of one of the two other party youth organizations. These rooms were obviously special and had an aura of religiosity about them with all the pictures and decorations paying homage to Lenin or to the party.

The Palaces we saw have a number of rooms for special purposes, e.g. a dance studio, a photography laboratory, a hot-house, etc. Interestingly, we were told that there were no study rooms in either Palace.

We were told that the children come to the Palaces in order to participate in hobby clubs. These clubs are supervised by trained personnel and follow set curricula for the year. The children come to these clubs once or twice a week and belong to one club only.

We were told that any child who wished could come to any of the clubs, but since the Palaces were not awash with children, there must have been some way of selecting the children for participation. Trying to get precise answers to this question, though, was very frustrating. seems that children are recommended for these hobby clubs by their classroom teachers who generally urge children to go into clubs which are in the area of their probable future jobs. How the children were selected at the Palaces if there were not enough spaces in the proper clubs went unanswered in both Palaces.

The first impression I came away with was that there is a great deal of merit to the Soviet system of after-school education. It gives children some place to go after school where they can become involved in something they enjoy. And by having the hobby club follow a set curriculum under trained supervision, it would seem that a child's particular skills or interests could become well-developed.

I have concerns, though, that the curricula could be defined with little flexibility since (I assume) that the curricula are approved by some party educational official or government agency. Yet the actual operation of the club is probably more due to the particular character of the teacher than to anything else. So if a child learns early that he has a particular interest and gets into a hobby club with a good instructor, he would seem to be much better off than many of our youngsters who would not have that opportunity.

But I was uneasy about the recommendations by the classroom teachers for the particular hobby clubs. I wonder if it can be determined as early as the elementary school grades what the future job prospects for a particular child are and therefore that he should go into a particular hobby club. Of course, some children show a proclivity for science or math very early; but I wonder if that can be determined for the great bulk of the children. And what if a child is put into an art club and a couple of years later he decides that he wants to be a dancer? Can he get into a dance club when he is much older?

The administrations of the Palaces did not seem to think that such a shift would occur often or that it would be difficult to change, and I wonder if one answer could be that the Soviet children are more likely to accept teachers' and administrators' judgments on their proper place in society than American children (or more importantly, their parents) would. Another part of the answer could be that the Palaces we saw were exceptional and that the children in those clubs were chosen because they had demonstrated some unusual ability in certain areas. But the administrators at the two Palaces would not admit this, and that leads to my second conclusion.

I came away with the impression that the Soviets and Americans view people quite differently. The Palace administrators refused to admit a selectivity in these clubs. They seemed to be saying that all children are equal; it is just that each child may have a different ability in a certain area, and the schools should bring out the abilities of all. If a child does not develop any ability, perhaps it is because the teachers did not bring out his ability.

The Americans in our group seemed to be approaching the questioning with the assumption that someone was making the actual selection of the children, and maybe he was influenced by factors other than the pure ability of the children. We seemed to want to know if there was discrimination against anyone in the selection.

Were the poorer children admitted as easily as the richer? We seemed to be approaching the questioning from the viewpoint that there were social classes, and we wanted to know if the poor got any breaks. They seemed to be approaching it from the viewpoint that there were no social classes, and therefore the students with certain abilities just rose to the top; no heed had to be paid to helping those from poorer surroundings.

In other words, we had a class consciousness and the Soviets did not. I think that they are unrealistic if they believe that social classes do not exist in the Soviet Union. We saw an English language school in Moscow, for example, where 90 percent of the children went on to college and an English-language school in Kiev where only 20 percent went on to college. We were told that the school in Kiev was in a working-class neighborhood. And from the conversations I had with students at the school in Moscow, I believe that most of those students came from parents with better jobs.

So, there is a difference in achievement and aspiration among classes here. But maybe we ourselves are so aware of classes that we could not understand their attitude that they had a classless society. Maybe they do to an extent.

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CENTRAL PIONEER PALACE - MOSCOW
(by Martha Phillips)

Central Palace serves the entire city; in addition, each of the 30 districts in the city has its own district pioneer house. Also, schools and apartments have clubs. Each Pioneer Palace has either 15,000 or 40,000 pupils and a permanent, trained staff of 300. The teachers and the school workers also come to the Pioneer Palace for advice. The ages of the pupils range from six to eighteen years of age. The Pioneer Palaces remain open from 9:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m. although the heaviest attendance is in the afternoon. The staff works two shifts: 9:30 a.m.-6:30 p.m.; and 12:30-9:30 p.m.

Approximately 400 clubs or circles usually meet twice a week for two hours. Pupils join a club in which they have a strong interest and ability. Their school teacher recommends them for a club and they receive an invitation to join. These invitations are distributed by active Pioneer Palace members in their secondary schools. Two clubs per pupil is the maximum; most attend only one. One generally attends the same club for several consecutive years. Ballet and other arts may continue indefinitely.

The Central Pioneer Palace has many clubs not found in the district Pioneer Houses--Cosmonauts Club, Hydro-biology Club, etc. So students wishing to participate in their activities must come to the Central Palace.

Some clubs--drawing, for example--are found in nearly every district pioneer house. No explanation was given as to why some children pursued these clubs in the Central Palace and others in the district pioneer houses. It was denied that the most able students are selected for the Palace.

The physical plant far surpassed any schools visited by our group in the Soviet Union. The plant was bright, modern, warm, and well equipped.

The entrance hall rises two stories in height and is filled with tropical plants and tries to form a "winter garder." Some rooms were carpeted. Shops and labs were amply equipped.

The ambience resembled that of an American elementary school in the suburbs. Children freely moved through the halls, indulging in horseplay now and then. Classes were informal, with the teacher assisting the children rather than teaching them, often waiting for assistance to be requested rather than offering it.

Rooms we observed included: Lenin Hall - used for initiation and other ceremonies; international club; a carpeted room full of toys (resembling F.A.O. Schwartz) called the "Young Octobrists toy room; Observatory, Young Cosmonauts and Astrophysics clubs and laboratories; automobile (driver ed.) Club, lecture auditorium, young sailors, painting, sculpture, radio laboratory, airplane building club, rocket club, photo club, cinematography club, sports clubs, shipbuilding club and concert hall.

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PIONEER PALACE IN KIEV

(by Carol Egermeier)

The Pioneer Palace serves as an extracurricular program to the schools, similar to, but a much expanded version of, the U.S. Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., 4-H Club, and Scouts. As an organized program financed and adminstered under the Ministry of Education, the Pioneer programs are effective in directing out-of-school activities. Literature on Soviet education states that Pioneer activities "are the foremost agencies in the field of political education,"[1] but this was not clearly evident from our cursory visit.

The Kiev Pioneer Palace was an attractive structure built only two years ago. Lovely mosaics decorating the interior walls were designed by the students. The auditorium in which we viewed a student-made film was impressive. Physically it appeared to be a well-designed and functional building.

The Pioneer Palace serves as the coordinating unit for ten Pioneer Houses in various districts of Kiev and offers inservice training to the teachers in the district Houses. Other functions discharged by the central or main headquarters are publishing materials for schools and Komosols, organizing city-wide festivals, sports activities and seminars with political leaders. All this is in addition to providing a full-range of hobby group activities (120 groups) for the 9,000 student participants.

PIONEER PALACES IN KIEV

(by Sherrill D. McMillen)

One of the unique and apparently exemplary concepts observed during our visits to Soviet schools was demonstrated in the Pioneer Palaces. The Pioneer Palaces were a part of the Communist youth movement with clubs in all major cities and in the individual schools.

Children up to the age of 10 are joined in groups of little "Oktobrists;" children between the ages of 10 and 14 are members of young pioneer clubs, while older youth become members of Komsomal, the young Communist's organization. The students participating in the programs are provided with an indepth exposure to the Communist movement and serve as the training force for future membership and leadership in the Communist Party.

Our group visited the Pioneer Palace in Kiev and had an opportunity to discuss the program with the adult leadership. We came in the morning, however, at a time when few students were present. The facility was comparatively new and contained study units, laboratories, and equipment far superior to what we had observed in the several public secondary schools visited previously.

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[1] George S. Counts, The Challenge of Soviet Education, McGraw-Hill, 1957, p.106.

Arrangements were made for Corrine Reider, Stafford Smiley, Richard Seigel and I to visit the Pioneer Palace again during the late afternoon and evening when students were present. We were told that any student who was interested could attend on his own during after-school hours and in the evenings.

On our return to the Pioneer Palace, we were met by a charming young Ukrainian girl who spoke fairly good English. She offered to explain any of the activities and provide us with an opportunity to visit any of the club activities. She informed us that we could take pictures, talk with the students and instructors or leaders, and visit any of the club activities for as long as we wished.

We visited the folk dancing, art, science, and mathematics classes as a group, then separated to visit the English-speaking club, biology, and chemistry clubs. We then visited the three different levels of electronics laboratories as a group.

Our observations of the students at work, the instructors, and the excellent equipment impressed all of us as to the importance of the programs in providing supplementary educational experiences to the regular school program. The leaders of the clubs or instructors were experts in their fields and were providing opportunities for the students to obtain educational experiences and information that would not normally be provided in the school program.

We were told that students participating in the Pioneer Palace Clubs had a much higher rate of acceptance in institutions of higher education and were more successful when employed. Our observations led us to believe that the programs provided the young participants with a unique opportunity to supplement the educational programs provided by the Soviet school system. The club activities also provided an in-depth review of the history and ideologies of the Communist movement in the Soviet Union.

The youth participating in the Pioneer Palace club activities had an observable dedication to the study of historical events related to the Communist movement and its effects on the economic, cultural and social life of the Soviet people. As stated in Education in the USSR, an official Russian text, "Children and young people are brought up to love their Socialist Motherland, to be proud of its achievements, of the heroic deeds of the Soviet people, led by the Communist Party and the Soviet Government. At the same time, children are taught to be internationalists, in conformity with the principles of Marxism-Leninism."

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THE PIONEER MOVEMENT AS CAREER EDUCATION

(by Alice Y. Scates)

Career education in the Soviet Union is called The Young Pioneers Movement. In Kiev, we visited the Pioneer Palace, and it was rather palatial as educational institutions go. The building is large, new, functional, and beautifully decorated. As usual, we began with a formal presentation by the woman director or administrator of the Palace.

Again, although she spoke in Russian which was translated for us, she understood English and also spoke it. As she described the program of activities at this particular Palace, the picture emerged that this was really another separate school system made up of elective subjects. She explained that the children in Kiev go to school from about 11:00 A.M.

to 3:00 P.M., since the Kiev schools are on a single shift. They come to the Palace before school, beginning as early as 7:30 A.M., and after school on into the evening. About 90 percent of all Soviet children between ages nine and 14 participate in some part of the Pioneer Movement. There is a Central Palace in each State capital, but there is also a district and a local Pioneer House network, with a Young Pioneers club room in every Soviet school.

Each child selects one or two of the Pioneer hobby groups, and if he shows unusual talent or interest in a particular hobby, he may also belong to an associated club which adds more depth to his knowledge. The hobby group gives practical applications, and the club gives more of the theory behind the subject. These so-called hobby groups cover every subject imaginable--certainly everything we call electives in this country.

We were taken on a tour of some 20 classrooms. For example, there was a home-economics suite, including a kitchen, dining room, and living room for the practice of homemaking skills, a sewing room, a biology room, a botany room, a laboratory for the study of physiology, an aeronautics shop, and an astronomy center with a real observatory on the roof.

In addition, we were shown a ten-minute film made by the Photography Hobby Group. There was certainly nothing amateurish about it. It showed the ceremony at which young people are awarded the red silk scarf which is worn around the neck to signify membership in the Young Pioneers. Incidentally, this ceremony took place in the Lenin room, with a large metal sculptured bas-relief head of Lenin on the wall before which was a bank of flowers and plants. (In fact, Lenin's picture or statue was found in practically every educational institution we visited in all three cities.) The film also showed other hobby-group activities such as the children operating model boats which they had built and some very joyous dancing around a handsome Christmas tree.

This particular Pioneer Palace serves as a coordinating unit for ten Pioneer Houses located in various districts of Kiev, and it offers in-service training to the teachers in those district houses. In addition, it publishes materials, and it organizes special functions such as city-wide festivals, sports activities, and seminars with political leaders. All this is in addition to operating 120 hobby groups for the approximately 9,000 student participants at the main Palace itself.

The Young Pioneers is an organization for youth aged nine to 14. Its stated purpose is to improve young people's studies and habits. In effect, it seems to be the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Little League, and the YW and YMCA all rolled into one. Reportedly its objectives are to help students with their school work, to provide a wide variety of extra-curricula activities, and to engage students in productive activity for the State. Apparently it also functions as a means of discipline in the schools for, if a student is not doing well in his work or if he misbehaves, he cannot participate in the Pioneer programs.

Many of the instructors in the Pioneer Palace are part-time teachers from the regular schools, but these are supplemented by scientists, artists, engineers, ballerinas, and many other professional people in the community who join in the teaching program. The central Pioneer Palace in Kiev has about 320 on its main teaching staff and 200 or more who are part-time instructors.

As I have mentioned, there is a central Pioneer Palace in each of the major cities we visited. Around these there are district Pioneer Houses, and in every school there is a Pioneer club room. The central Pioneer Palaces truly deserve their title of Palace. The one for Moscow's youth occupies a choice location in the Lenin Hills section near the State university and is a sprawling contemporary structure. The Leningrad Pioneer Palace actually occupies a former nobleman's palace in the heart of the city.

Of course, there are fewer hobby groups available at the local level than at the district or central palace level. However, the groups do seem to represent a fair variety of career choices for the talented as well as the less talented. A Pioneer is also expected to help his fellow students keep up with their school work. Even to be a Pioneer, theoretically at least, a student must do well in school.

We got the impression that there is a great deal of merit to this Soviet system of out-of-school education. The students are free to seek personal satisfaction in the groups they chose. They have a place where they can go before and after school hours where they can be involved in something which they enjoy. Since the hobby clubs do follow a fairly well-defined curriculum under trained supervision, it seems that a child's particular skills and interests can become well developed. The actual operation of the club is probably strongly influenced by the character of the teacher, so that if a child learns early that he has a particular interest and gets into a hobby club with a good instructor, he is probably much better off than many of our own children who would not have the opportunity to pursue an interest in depth.

It was difficult to determine exactly how a young Soviet goes about "choosing a career" in our terms. This does not seem to be a concept which our hosts readily understood. It seems that children are recommended for different hobby clubs by their classroom teachers who generally urge children to go into clubs which are in the area of their future jobs. If there are not enough hobby clubs to provide the ideal answer for each child, he apparently makes do by exploring several different groups to find one or two in which he is interested.

There is, of course, the question of how well it is possible to determine future job prospects for a particular child at the elementary level so that specific hobby clubs can be suggested to him. However, the administrators pointed out that it was always possible for children to move from one hobby group to another. Also, they feel that it is the responsibility of the teacher to know each child well enough to be able to recognize his particular abilities and talents.

The Soviets seem to feel that all children are truly equal, that each child may have somewhat different abilities in different areas, and the the schools are responsible to bring out whatever abilities each child may have. We were told that, within the Pioneer activities, information is circulated about jobs in which there is a demand for additional people. Although the work of the Pioneers is not related directly to manpower needs, students may be encouraged to sign up for study or hobby groups where there is an opportunity for later employment, perhaps in some of the industries located nearby.

The Young Pioneer Movement is an integral part of the Soviet educational system. It fosters group activities and group solidarity. It develops the skills and talents of the Soviet citizen of tomorrow.

* * *

THE MOSCOW ENGLISH LANGUAGE SCHOOL

(by Alice Y. Scates)

Our first visit in Moscow was on a Saturday morning to a special English language school. In the Soviet Union, incidentally, education is considered a very serious business and the schools operate six days a week. This school included grades one through ten. There were 650 pupils and 52 teachers. The students were drawn from the local area. There were no special entrance examinations, although they did eliminate those with major speech defects.

This school is one of some 800 throughout the U.S.S.R. which specializes in teaching some foreign language. The major European languages are covered although English, French, and German are the most popular.

In the Moscow school, the children begin in the second grade with three hours of English instruction per week, and this increases to six hours per week for the higher grades. At the upper levels, several subjects are taught entirely in English. There is also an English club, the usual type of language laboratory with records and tape recorders, and an English camp for one month during the Summer. The methods of instruction include the expected--speaking, writing, singing English songs, listening to tapes, and telling stories. They also include typing in English and corresponding with other English language schools in the Soviet Union as well as several schools in England.

Although we think of ourselves as the primary English-speaking country in the world, it was interesting to realize that the Soviets focused their teaching of English around England itself. The reason apparently is that they have had and can still have far more communication with England than with the United States.

When we arrived at this school, we were greeted by ninth and tenth grade students who escorted us to the English club room. Here the principal of the school, a woman, greeted us and explained that there were in the room about a dozen ninth and tenth grade students who were members of the club, and who would show us the school and talk with us individually. We also sat in on two classes.

The first was a ninth grade literature class conducted entirely in English. The discussion was of Somerset Maugham's Moon and Sixpence. The teacher distributed written questions and each student then spoke in English on his question. For example, "how do you think Mrs. B. felt about her husband going off alone to Paris?" As the student replied, the teacher would interrupt to correct verb tenses, prepositions, and the like. Generally, however, the students spoke English rather freely and without trace of an accent to our ears.

The next class we visited was an experimental history course created by the teacher herself. She had specialized in English history during her graduate work and had planned the curriculum for her students. She had sent it in to the university to have it checked for general accuracy and acceptability. The group was an eighth grade with students about age 14. Here the teacher was mostly lecturing, and she occasionally asked some minor question. Their responses were very limited, but it was difficult to tell whether they lacked the facility in English, were embarrassed by so many visitors crowded into the back of the room, or were just not too interested.

This course covered the Norman Conquest of England and included the Anglo-Saxon Chroncle or the "Doomsday Book". The teacher had prepared the paper-back text which was used by the students. After class when we asked if the focus was entirely on English history, she said that some United States history is covered in the ninth grade.

We also visited briefly both a second grade and a third grade classroom. In the latter, the students were telling stories in Russian. However, in both grades the children rose when we entered and said, "Good Morning," in English. They also stood and said, "Goodbye" when we left.

All of the students in this school wore attractive blue uniforms, although there was lots of deviation in the way of sweaters, ties, socks and shoes. The classroom instruction seemed rather formal and didactic, but the students were serious and obviously learning to speak English.

Throughout the Soviet Union, there are 40 such special schools in English, and two of them are in Moscow. In addition, there are English clubs in the Pioneer Palaces and Houses which are spread throughout the Soviet Union. Even in a vocational school in Leningrad designed to produce draftsmen and metal workers for a nearby industrial plant, there was a fully equipped language lab, and every student was expected to use it to keep up his skill in English or whatever foreign language he had studied.

This means that there are literally thousands of people in Russia who speak English rather fluently as a second language, and there are thousands more who at least understand it very well indeed. The same is true of a number of other major languages of the world. Certainly, this is an impressive achievement, and although I do not know currently what our own students achieve in the way of mastery in foreign languages, I do not believe that it can possibly equal that of the Soviet Union.

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LIBRARIES AND EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

(by Carol Egermeier)

From a practitioner's point of view, it appeared that if we had been viewing U.S. education institutions 35 years ago, we would have seen similar forms of practice and curriculum. One of the more revealing visits was to the educational exhibit at the Exhibition of Economic Achievements in Moscow. Here we viewed "model" classrooms which had two students per desk, a rather austere environment, and quite clumsy equipment.

For all the technological advances that the Soviets claim, one area that is far behind U.S. standards is educational technology, yet we feel we are just standing on the threshold of that arena ourselves. However, as structured as curriculum appeared to be, if the Ministry of Education and the Soviet government decided on that arena as a priority, there would probably be great strides made quickly.

The most impressive of the elementary-secondary programs were the Pioneer activities. Their apparent objectives seem to be implemented effectively and provide a full-range of out-of-school and summer activities. With the state encouraging both sexes to be fully employed, the Pioneer programs provide a function of occupying school-age children's out-of-school time while parents work.

The specialized language schools varied in approach. It appeared that those schools in which the secondary curriculum was taught in the language provided students with better working knowledge and skills.

The libraries at all the schools we visited were closed, locked, and the librarians were never available. This appeared to be just a coincidence, but one of the little frustrations for me as a librarian. It was clearly evident, though, from questioning students and teachers and peering through the windows in the door, that the libraries are what we would term "traditional". The media center concept has not pervaded the library yet.

These areas were most interesting to me as the practices and forms of elementary-secondary education is where I am most involved. The only other visit of particular interest to me was to the Leningrad Ministry of Education. Here we were exposed to administrative officials in a city. By dividing into relatively small groups, many questions were answered as to the educational administrative structure of cities and special functions of that office.

One of the statements we heard frequently was--"the right to work, the right to rest, and the right to study". These are three basic values of all Soviet citizens. It became apparent that there is a great emphasis on education in the U.S.S.R. and that even though their system appears 35 years behind ours, students are learning and are actively involved in the educational process of the country. Maybe we need to pursue the goal of making education that valuable in our country.

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A SECONDARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOL IN LENINGRAD

(by Philip Rosenfelt)

One of 104 secondary vocational schools in the city of Leningrad, School No. 10 trains qualified metal workers (turners and fitters), designers, and radio operators. There are over one hundred different trades taught at vocational schools in Leningrad, preparing students for such varied professions as shoemaking and restaurant waiter.

After a student's eighth year in his academic secondary school, he may choose to stay on for the ninth and tenth grades, enter a technical college (technicum) instead, or elect to go to a vocational secondary school such as No. 10. A vocational school differs from a technical college because the latter institution prepares students to be more highly skilled technicians.

School No. 10 accepts 300 students each year, all of whom reside in Leningrad; this year 38% of them were women. The school usually admits anyone who applies, but if in a particular year, more apply than there are places, the prospective students compete on the basis of their grades in their previous eight years of schooling.

The student at School No. 10 stays for three years, receiving a general education similar to the ninth and tenth grades in the academic seconary schools in addition to technical training in his selected field. Some vocational schools offer only one year courses, attended by students who have completed the regular ten year elementary and secondary school but failed the entrance exam to an institution of higher learning.

Each vocational school is associated with an enterprise (factory) where the student will spend his last three months of school as an apprentice at an appropriate pay scale. During the three years of training, students are also supplied with uniforms, transportation and pocket money by the enterprise.

School No. 10 has its own workshops and laboratories where students also receive practical experience. These working areas are considered part of the sponsoring enterprise, and the students produce parts actually used by the enterprise. In return, the enterprise purchases them, giving 45% of the price to the Republic's budget for the maintenance of the school, 33% to the students as bonuses, and 22% to the school for staff bonuses and the purchase of new equipment. The school thereby trains the student by teaching theory and giving him actual experience, while supplying the economy with useful products.

School No. 10's classes are divided into groups of 15 to 27 students. The technical courses are usually taught by a specialist in the field, while the general courses are taught by regularly trained teachers. All students at this school take one of two curriculums--metal work or electronics. The school's classes use traditional methods of teaching but make much use of modern audio-visual teaching aids such as television, tape equipment, and motion pictures in all of which the teachers and school administrators take much pride.

The future of the vocational school in Russia seems very bright. There are plans to double the number of vocational schools in Leningrad within five years. The principal at School No. 10 admitted that this would mean constricting the acceptance rate at other educational institutions to provide a greater number of students for the vocational schools, but he was confident that this would present no real problem.

In addition, vocational education is gaining favor among educators and parents alike, because of the valuable level of practical experience gained and the ultimate opportunities for advancement. A graduate with high grades from a vocational school can enter an institution of higher learning without taking an entrance examination. Education theorists in Russia seem to believe that the development of a highly mechanized society demands the training that only a vocational school can give.

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A NATIONAL UKRAINIAN SCHOOL IN KIEV

(by Keith Hartwell)

Instruction is in Ukrainian. English and Russian are both taught from the second form. They have 22 different labs and study rooms filled "with all the necessary teaching aids". The enrollment is 1,008 students with a faculty of 75 teachers.

The school offers many extracurricular activities in the form of hobby groups. The International Club is particularly active and has sponsored a convention of students from all 15 Republics.

Each secondary school has patrons or sponsors which take an interest in their curriculum, offering them materials or money. The sponsors for this school included the Radio school at the Kiev Institute, a building company, and a publishing house in Kiev.

Question: Do any of your students attend the Central Pioneer Palace?
Answer: Yes, in both the Central and District Palaces.

What is the difference between the two?
There is no difference between the activities of the two. The difference is in the size of the facility and the number of hobby groups.

How many attend from this school?
Among the hobby groups in the schools and both Central and District Pioneer Palaces, virtually all the students are involved in some hobby group activity. The Central Pioneer Palace is the methodological center for all hobby groups and District Pioneer Palaces in the entire Republic.

If a child is falling behind in his work, is he required to drop out of his hobby group?
No.

What is the percent of students who go on to Higher Education from this school?
35% this year.

What kind of jobs would the other 65% receive?
The school is surrounded by many industrial plants. There is no problem finding a job. You are hired at the plant, but for the first three months you are an intern and are paid only 30 Rubles a month. Then you must pass an exam to become a fully paid plant worker.

We visited a literature class, an electronics class, an English class, the library and the gym. We were given a short, prepared talk on the Ukrainian poet, Shevchenko by a group of students. The student's English was noticably poorer than at the English language school in Moscow. In every classroom we entered, the first items pointed out were the technical aids (i.e., slide projectors, films, etc.). In one class, a question was asked about the extent of Young Pioneer activities. Everyone in the class was a member except four, and they "were preparing to become members." "Preparing" seemed to indicate improving one's grades.

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MINISTRY OF CULTURE MUSIC SCHOOL IN LENINGRAD

(by Richard Siegel)

As we learned throughout our trip, the education of Soviet children provided by the State does not end with regular school hours. In Moscow and in Kiev, we visited Pioneer Palaces where youngsters in the Young Pioneer age group (11 through 14) have a host of after-school recreational and educational activities. In Leningrad, we visited another type of after-school facility for Soviet children: a music school operated by the Ministry of Culture which also operates art and ballet schools for children to attend after regular school hours.

The music school we visited was in a practically brand new building at 44 Varshavskaya (Warsaw) Street in Leningrad's southern suburbs, or Moscow District. It stands in the midst of a newly developed neighborhood, surrounded by recently built high rise apartment houses. (Two days later, we visited another school on the same street, Secondary School No. 1 at 30 Varshavskaya. Evidently this is one of Leningrad's model neighborhoods from the standpoint of schools.) The music school stands out because of the sculptured relief frieze across the front of the building above the entrance, portraying musicians with various kinds of musical instruments.

The music school is open on school days from 2 P.M. to 10 P.M. It serves a thousand students between the ages of six and 17 and has 120 teachers. Each student has two individual lessons a week on his or her instrument, the lessons lasting 45 minutes each. Six hundred are learning piano; 170 are learning accordion, and the rest are taking violin, other string instruments, and various folk musical instruments. In addition to the two individual lessons per week, the students all get classes at the school in music literature and theory. They also take part in orchestra rehearsals. All in all, the school manages to take up the bulk of its students' after-school time.

Not every interested student can attend this school because there are insufficient places for all applicants in the district it serves. So students are admitted after faculty appraisal of their musical aptitude. The students' families pay a monthly tuition fee based on the family's ability to pay: 1.5 Rubles a month for the lowest income family up to 20 Rubles a month if the family enjoys a good Soviet salary of 400 Rubles a month or more. There is also a nominal rent for orchestra instruments taken home by the students, 10 to 20 kopecks a month.

The aim of the school, according to the director, Engenya Nikolaevna Sakharina, is not to turn out professional musicians, but about 30 percent of the school's graduates do go on to pursue further professional music training.

Our late Saturday afternoon [illegible] found the school in full swing, Saturday being a regular school d[illegible] the Soviet Union. In individual studies, we visited private lessons in oboe, accordion, marimba, piano, violin, and French horn. We saw 25 youngsters practicing their accordions in an accordion orchestra rehearsal. The teaching and the school facilities were excellent, and the children seemed enthusiastic.

Mme. Sakharina told us, "It is not easy for our children to combine regular school with our school in the same day. Children are children, but still they seem to like our school." What we saw and heard confirmed her statement.

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Chapter IV

HIGHER EDUCATION, ADULT EDUCATION, AND RESEARCH

Our contacts with three major universities of the Soviet Union--in Moscow, Kiev, and Leningrad--revealed the high prestige and economic reward attached to higher education. It has been the Soviet success in focusing its intellectual resources on applied science and technology which accounts for its stature as an international super-power in the postwar world. Soviet recovery from the enormous destruction of World War II, its creation of a hydrogen bomb in the early 1950's, the manufacture of an intercontinental missile force, and the establishment of a modern jet aircraft industry are marks of success in mobilizing Soviet brain power.

The community of scientists which has been created at Novosibirsk University was not on our itinerary. This legendary academic paradise in Siberia is the site of a gigantic intellectual crucible where thousands of scientists engage in a drive toward research achievements. It is the foremost example, moreover, of the Soviet conception of higher education; the predominance of science--applied science--is the most striking characteristic of universities in the Soviet Union. It is the basis for the massive investment which that country makes in higher education; it is considered essential to the continued health of this highly technological society.

We did not visit the campus of Leningrad University but met with faculty and student representatives at the Soviet-American Friendship House in the city. Both Leningrad and Kiev Universities are constructing new university cities some distance outside their respective urban centers, following the example of Novosibirsk as well as some European and Latin American countries. Moscow State University built a new campus in the Moscow suburbs during the 1950's.

The larger question of educational enterprise is that of public information generally. A closed society like the U.S.S.R. cannot allow open exchange of all views, but a very widespread effort is being made to provide laundered information to workers. A lecture effort of considerable proportions brings scholars, scientists, and other intellectuals to the factories, residential communities, and other public gathering places. The result is an admirable dissemination of cultural and scientific news to those wishing to hear it. In effect, it is a Soviet Chatauqua which serves much the same purpose of entertainment and enlightenment which the Chatauqua circuit served in the United States early in this century.

The Society of Knowledge is a national voluntary association of Soviet academicians which administers the lecture circuit. It is discussed more fully in this chapter, but the fact that Soviet intelligentsia provides such a service is notable. That it is organized with the strong impetus of the State does not diminish this social service in human terms. It is another expression of the community and group orientation which furthers the cohesion of Soviet society.

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LEADERSHIP GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

(by Lee G. Burchinal)

As a two-week visitor to the U.S.S.R., I felt I developed, at best, only general impressions--based on fleeting insights--into an extremely complex eductional system. Undoubtedly, we met some of the U.S.S.R.'s outstanding educators and saw some of its best educational organizations. But even these glimpses were valuable: These experiences suggested some of the strengths, unique aspects, and glaring limitations of the society and educational institutions. My perceptions are organized around five topics: complexity, quality, research and utilization of results, issues raised by our visits, and reactions to the seminar itself.

Complexity

We barely scratched the surface of Soviet education. We were in only three large Western-oriented cities, and we saw only a few and probably only the best educational institutions in these cities. We did not visit small towns or more remote rural areas, nor did we meet many run-of-the-mill educators and no parents, except our guides. Still, some impressions of the complexity of Soviet education came through, along with some contradictory notes.

Aims for Soviet education cannot be separated from social, political, and economic goals of the State. Since all resources for education come from the State, those benefiting are expected to serve the State. Education serves the State as well to ensure the proper "moral" upbringing of children so that they will become useful contributors to Soviet society.

The Soviets believe in education--really a combination of psychological and social molding of children and youth to acquire skills needed by the State--and they back up their belief with considerable resources from pre-school education through adult and continuing education. Soviet education is directed first of all by State goals and, secondarily, if we believe the spokesmen we met, by research and development results.

Here they seem to be guided by the scientific model of R&D, but my feeling is that pragmatic considerations cherished by the political-bureaucratic establishment weigh heavily in consideration of curricular-instructional changes. Why else for example, would they need ten years of "research" to condense four years of primary school into three? Regardless of the process, Soviets we talked with had confidence and pride in their system. Older spokesmen know what they have accomplished; higher education students realize the benefits they are receiving and the careers that will be available to them; secondary students we met seemed ernest as well. Only once, at the Research Institute for Adult and Continuing Education in Leningrad, did we encounter anything close to the pessimism about educational outcomes so common in the United States.

Yet for a society which is supposed to be controlled by centralized planning and resource allocation processes, there apparently is considerable adaptability, flexibility, and some creativity--at least in those areas not included in the national curricula at the secondary level. We learned, for instance, that a teacher introduced the history of Western Europe in a Moscow English language school by obtaining permission to substitute this course for an equivalent number of hours of required English. She developed the curricula, used original sources at the Lenin State Library and the Library of Foreign Literature, prepared a text with editorial help from a member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, and now is working with teachers in other English-language schools to help them adopt her materials.

Cooperative, colleague-based relationships abound as well--between the APS in Moscow, educational research institutes in the Republics, and among various institutes and other post-secondary organizations. Ideas and recommendations below the level of State goals and plans seem to flow freely among professionals. Instances also were cited of public pressure for various changes, such as reducing homework given to children.

Intriguing indications of flexibility also arose from discussions of research support. Kiev University scholars obtain direct support from the Ukrainian Ministry of Higher Education but also receive funds for basic as well as applied R&D from various enterprises. Scientific workers can also push for support of their projects through the University administration, of course, and from Ukrainian-reserved funds or from funds at the U.S.S.R. level. Further, individual researchers can solicit or otherwise receive direct support and, as I understand it, salary augmentation as well by doing R&D work for an enterprise. While Institute speakers are expected to give free lectures to workers in factories or at the Palace of Culture as members of the Society of Knowledge, they do receive payment, based on their academic status, for a course of requested lectures.

Several contradictions also emerged. Though the goal is ten years of education, students can leave school at the end of eight years. Demands for labor plus--according to one spokesman--widespread boredom of secondary students, leads to early employment. But the State still requires ten years of education and, further, provides for completion of secondary school through a variety of means. One is studying during a day off-work per week. Factory managers resist providing the day off because it may reduce their capacity to meet their production quotas. Trade union leaders, also State-related, fight for the youths' rights to complete their education.

Numerous factors undoubtedly determine individual outcomes. Public library holdings and usage (in contrast to other controlled-information flow into the U.S.S.R.) represents another contradiction. In Moscow and Leningrad in public and specialized libraries, I saw hundreds of foreign periodicals and indexes to scientific, technical, behavioral science and educational literature open for use by anyone having a library card. I had no difficulty in obtaining a card, on my own, after showing my passport. I assume U.S.S.R. citizens can easily obtain cards. (Incidentally, cards are required even to enter a library and to get past uniformed guards at all entrances.) Yet the Soviets control the influx of Western newspapers, magazines, and other sources of current developments.

Also, for all the emphasis on planning, some of us were struck by the lack of formal coordination and apparent duplication among various educational groups. Within a large city such as Leningrad, we could not learn how higher education and secondary education budget allocations were coordinated, nor could we get a clear description of the training and retraining responsibilities of various institutes and universities. This issue became clearer to me when I tried to ferret out the dissemination responsibilities of various groups.

VINITI is the all-U.S.S.R. information system for world-wide published scientific and technical literatuure. It covers biology, but the medical system in the U.S.S.R. is developing its own "applied" medical information system. MEDLARS, the U.S. system of the National Library of Medicine would have a difficult time separating its file into basic and applied areas, but this is the course the Russians are committed to.

In education, the APS has an information department in Moscow under the General Pedagogies Institute, to cover "school" literature, on a Soviet and world-wide basis and a separate information sector in Leningrad to cover adult and continuing education on an equally extensive basis. Again, there have to be overlaps in literature as well as dis-economies of small scale operation. Neither system covers higher education. There may be a separate system, but I had no chance to make contact with the higher education ministry. Even granting there is, there is no way to have one point of contact, as with ERIC for U.S. literature, to obtain current U.S.S.R. educational R&D literature.

Quality

It is extremely hard to judge the quality of Russian education, not even the education we observed in a few sites in three advanced cities. On one hand, we saw the results of language, specifically English, instruction. The Intourist guides had great command of English, as good or better than guides I have heard in 18 countries around the world. The secondary English language students we heard in several cities were already competent with English as well. I can only assume that the Soviets are doing as well in other priority areas, especially fields of science and mathematics.

The Pioneer Palaces and Houses and related clubs and summer camps are magnificent educational resources. We were impressed by the educational materials and equipment available in these buildings--especially in relation to their dearth in the schools. Still, we questioned whether the Pioneer operation made up for what seemed to be the shallowness and rigidity of the school curricula.

We heard a great deal about the four to five years of postsecondary study required by pre-service teacher preparation and the compulsory half-year retraining required each five years. Yet, teachers in the primary grades followed specialized, inflexible curricula. They may or may not be competent, but glances we had did not suggest bright, exciting persons who were helping children develop their own resources.

Sex role stereotypes in education were abundant. Even in the specialized English language school, all girls studied typing, while boys did scientific translations. Further, from preschool and primary years--which were universally managed by women--the proportion of males steadily increased through postsecondary levels. Without exception, all secondary and postsecondary spokesmen were males.

It was almost impossible to detect failure or shortcomings in educational attainment. Children simply did not fail. If they were falling behind, we were told they would receive special attention; other children would help them; teachers would talk to their parents, and so on. One of our group reported seeing only four's and five's (on a grading scale of one to five) on a class list. Yet we were told that children who did exceptionally well in school and at the Pioneer House or Palace would have to take fewer tests to secure postsecondary admission.

One clear impression I did get was the meritocracy of the university. Students are rigorously selected and motivated to achieve high marks. Staff are also selected competitively, and their work is formally evaluated every five years. (The impression was that, like the U.S., research production weighed far heavier in this review than teaching competence.)

Research and Utilization

The Soviets place extremely high value on scientific and technical R&D--whether completed in foreign lands or within the U.S.S.R. It is not surprising, therefore, that they have also created elaborate mechanisms to acquire or conduct R&D in education and to apply relevant results. At the peak of the national educational R&D system stands the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences with its 11 separate institutes and 2,000 plus "scientific workers." Each of the 15 republics has one or more educational research institutes, which are independent of the APS but may join with the APS in cooperative R&D ventures and receive technical assistance from the APS.

The APS uses R&D to provide recommendations for new programs to the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Education. Similarly, educational research institutes in the republics provide recommendations to their educational ministries. Where the republic has jurisdiction, the ministries may institute changes. In cases where results have national significance, the republic ministry may forward its recommendations to the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Education. Research workers are responsible for R&D but accountable to their ministry of education; the ministry, however, implements whatever changes are made, based on R&D.

Issues

Numerous issues arose which remained unresolved upon our departure. Part of the difficulty was our initial ignorance in asking questions. Many times we asked questions which, if put to me about U.S. education and society, I would be hard pressed to answer. Other times, I detected and experienced fundamental differences in conceptual approaches. In Moscow, these differences were glossed over and emerged as agreement on the point in question, but by the time we left Kiev, some of us realized the Soviets meant something very different from what we thought they meant. The only time I felt absolutely sure of communication was at VINITI (the U.S S.R. scientific and technical information system) when the interpreter was a technical specialist, and we were using computer terminology, most of which was English-based. Difficulties also probably arose because our translators were not educational specialists and knew neither the U.S.S.R. or U.S.A. educational jargon.

A few issues which stand out are:

. What selectivity is there for specialized secondary education? Spokesmen indicated there was none; yet we learned of strong parental interest to have their children accepted in foreign-language--especially English--schools. Also, children we talked with showed surprisingly similar characteristics to the upwardly mobile families in U.S.--professionally-employed parents or at least fathers, small families or one-child families, and bi-lingual parents.

. What percent of children go on to postsecondary education? Figures given ranged from 30 to 90 percent for different schools. The answer largely lies in how postsecondary is defined. Numerous opportunities for free, part-time study exist beyond tenth grade.

. What weight is attached to previous work experience in relation to acceptance in postsecondary education? We got conflicting answers on this point.

. Is there any selection on who goes to the central Pioneer Palace as opposed to district Pioneer Houses? The answer was that no selection existed. Natural processes, more or less, accounted for who went where. Younger children generally participated in nearby Houses, but older children who could use public transportation had a degree of choice. If they wanted the advantages of the Pioneer Palace, they could avail themselves of it. Still, I was left with the impression that gifted older children were perhaps guided into the advanced curricula of hobby groups organized by staff of the Pioneer Palaces.

. How is the more structured career exploration and early skill development combined with the flexibility and freedom of hobby groups at the Pioneer Palaces and Houses? We learned these groups function to allow students to discover their abilities and interests. We also learned that approved curricula are followed. Further, we heard of coordination with the schools. But the whole picture did not jell--at least for me. This area could well be explored in depth by a future seminar. The functions of the Pioneer Houses and Palaces may provide innovative suggestions for the United States.

. Who are and what is the role of the methodologists? At all schools we were told about methodologists. In Moscow, we saw their offices. We gained the impression they had curricular responsibilities not unlike the role of a principal or assistant principal in a U.S. school. Each institute spokesman in Kiev referred to their key role in training teachers for using new curricula. But a teacher training spokesman in Leningrad denied they had any kind of special curricular supervision. Instead, he maintained their role was analogous to a master or lead teacher who helped new teachers learn the ropes of her job.

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BOOKS AND FOREIGN LITERATURE

(by Keith Hartwell)

Travelling to a country whose governing ideology is diametrically opposed to our own, I arrived in the Soviet Union with a preconceived notion of what I would find. I looked for discontent due to a lack of both material well-being and intellectual freedom. Yet, my first and most striking impression was not the differences but the similarities between the Soviet Union and the United States. The people on the streets were adequately dressed. The stores seemed fairly well stocked with food. No man in a black trenchcoat followed me wherever I went, and my letters arrived home in the same envelope in which they left. Clearly, there are fundamental differences between the United States and the U.S.S.R. Perhaps because they were unexpected, however, it was the similarities and near-similarities, not the differences, that were the most striking.

It was the education system that we concentrated on while in the Soviet Union and an area of special interest to me was the use of literature, particularly foreign literature in their curriculum.

Publishing in the Soviet Union can be accomplished through two different vehicles--the University Press or a "Commercial Publishing House". The University Press seemed similar in function to its counterpart in the United States. It is used almost exclusively by the University community and deals with material that is more esoteric in nature. In the words of one Leningrad professor, the University Press differs from the Publishing House in that its product is both "less readable and less profitable". It was very interesting that the professor stressed the fact that one tries as often as possible to go the Publishing House route as it is more profitable. He used the word royalties and seemed to indicate that the better books are received, the better the prices.

The agreement between the Publishing House and the author is handled somewhat differently than in the West. In the United States, one often has the option of being paid a flat rate or a percentage of the sales, while in the Soviet Commerical Publishing House, there is only one method. You contract for a given number of books (usually 10,000) and receive a certain price. If demand increases, you are paid the same price again for the next edition.

In talking with the Kiev University faculty, I found a striking similarity to United States practices. They understood perfectly the phrase, "publish or perish" and indicated they, too, lived by that dictum.

The use of foreign literature was not as severely limited as I had expected. When asked about foreign literature in the curriculum, Kiev University officials said they use the best works of foreign countries. "There are no restrictions although we use only books useful from a scientific point of view." They indicated they watched the foreign press carefully for books they should order for use in the classroom.

While this meeting, then, gave some indication of restrictions on foreign literature, the "officially approved" list was relatively respectable. Among English speaking authors, there were a number of favorites by students and teachers alike--Twain, Hemingway, Hart, Jerome, Byron and consistently, Jack London. Library shelves usually included Steinbeck, Coleridge, Poe, Melville, Hawthorne, Cooper, and Sommerset Maughm.

One most interesting conversation was with a literature professor at Leningrad University whose specialty was the Romantic Era of American literature. He spent some 15 minutes describing American Romanticism as portrayed through great American authors. The Commercial Publishing House had just accepted a 250 page manuscript from him on the subject. Asked whether he felt there were any constraints on the distribution of foreign literature, he felt that in his field, at least, there were not. "I am a dialectical materialist because I believe in it. This, however, has no bearing on literature. Literature is the reflection of man's philosophies and ideas and is studied for that reason." He seemed to make a distinction between the political and the academic.

In the political realm, I found some surprises. The Rector of the Leningrad University said he tried to keep up for a time with the speeches of William Fulbright, indicating some routine flow of those speeches into the country. He was likewise very familiar with the speeches of Adlai Stevenson, Senior. The writings of Thomas Jefferson seemed always to be an appreciated gift at the English-speaking schools.

One interesting conversation centered on the Bible. When asked if the Bible was taught as a piece of literature at the University, our Moscow tour guide answered no. In fact, she continued, there are no courses in Theology. However, in guiding us through the various churches in the Kremlin, she displayed a tremendous knowledge of the historical meaning of each icon, a knowledge she said she learned at the University. Somewhere in the University then, someone was very familiar with the Bible as a piece of historical literature.

As I indicated at the beginning of this paper, I was impressed by finding what I did not expect to find in the Soviet Union. The relative availability of foreign literature was one of those findings. The real difference between the Soviet Union and the United States was not so much in the availability but in the application of what was available. There is a significant divergence in the Soviet Union between what can be read and studied and what can be discussed. The latter seemed to come at a premium.

One saw this aspect of Soviet society from the very beginning of a child's education. In the classroom, a majority of the time is spent on memorization or listening to lectures. Application was a totally separate function handled through the Pioneer Palace where a heavy dose of Party supervision was administered. One bulletin board in a secondary school was particularly illustrative. The students seemed to have a concept of the United States, were familiar with various monuments and so on. Yet on the display on foreign countries, while they showed the buildings and other landmarks of other countries, the United States display was composed of a picture of riots in Washington, D. C.

In talking to the same University administrator who had kept up with the speeches of Fulbright and Stevenson, I asked about the constraints on a professor who would endorse or promote the writings and ideas of someone outside the Marxist framework. The answer was simple: "He would be relieved of his position." The entire interview situation was symbolic of this divergence. For exampl the gentlemen with whom we spoke were obviously very intelligent and knowledgable. Yet they were usually accompanied by a far younger man (obviously not a scholar) with the rather innocuous title of Special Assistant from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, to whom they turned for hurried counsel frequently before responding to a question.

I think this divergence between what can be read and what can be said is well illustrated by the writings of Alexander Solzhenitsyn. In his novel, The First Circle, one is impressed by the wealth of references to foreign literature and ideas discussed by the camp's inmates. There has evidently been far less restriction on what Solzhenitsyn has been able to read than on what he has been allowed to write.

The Soviets seem to feel secure enough in their system to allow a good deal of foreign literature, and by implication, foreign ideas to be a part of their educational process. With their increasing contact and subsequent detente with the West, this process is perhaps inevitable. They do not, however, seem in a hurry to let the free and open discussion of that literature and those ideas be a part of that system. One wonders how long that educational system can endure one without the other.

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MOSCOW STATE UNIVERSITY

(by George B. Lane)

Built by Stalin in the early 1950's, the Moscow State University (MGU) campus is a spacious and well-designed complex of massive structures dominating the city skyline on the far north. It was constructed on the brow of a high escarpment which rises several thousand feet above the plain on which Moscow sits. Called the Lenin Hills, this plateau also serves as the posh residential quarter for high Party officials, diplomats, and other favored elite.

The main building of MGU is the most impressive public structure we visited, which was built since the war. Constructed of brown brick with granite columns and ornament, the structure is enormous but graceful in proportions, topped by a spire reaching hundreds of feet in the air. It is reported to have 47,000 rooms and is 26 stories tall. The interior magnificence rivals the subway as a foremost example of Soviet architecture. It was in stunning contrast to almost all other Soviet public buildings.

The polished floors were parquet with intricate mosaic composed of varying textures and colors of wood. The lecture halls we visited were classical Greek in design with marble columns and gold baroque ornament. The architects had obviously borrowed freely from the Italian architect, Rastrelli, who designed the Czarist palaces. Clearly, this building was meant to glorify learning and was constructed with great care and expense.

The ESS group was scheduled to join another American tour from Ohio State University for a discussion with MGU administrators and faculty. Arriving late, we found the OSU group assembled in a large auditorium, being addressed from the stage by a cluster of five or six MGU staff, faculty, and students. A senior Soviet faculty member was discussing student participation in governance on campus. He said that the Young Communist League was represented on all faculty and administrative councils. Issues germane to student concerns were curriculum design and "professional preparation of graduates" (meaning exams, apparently). These councils also considered topics of student welfare, recreation, and living conditions. Students are also represented on academic committees of scientists and researchers, the professor added.

At lunch that day, an American Ph.D. candidate in Soviet history from Indiana University had told us that student government at MGU was active but ineffectual, mainly arrogating to itself all sorts of privileges and perquisites. Having been an exchange student at MGU for six months, he was dubious that students had any real voice in university affairs of consequence.

The luncheon with these American exchange students had, in fact, been a highlight of our time in Moscow. There were five or six of them, both men and women, who were invited through the U.S. embassy to meet with us. They were glad to have a meal at the hotel after living on student cafeteria food for months, they said. (We had baked chicken which they said was considered a delicacy in the Soviet Union and rarely available to them.)

Some of the anecdotes they told were enlightening. On the subject of restricted research material, the history student said he had access to library holdings and manuscripts which were closed to Soviet students. This seemed to accord generally with the special privileges extended to foreigners in the Soviet Union, although inexplicable in academic terms.

He and his wife had a comfortable and relatively spacious suite in the dormitory, also, occupying more space than was allowed to their Soveit counterparts. (While wives may accompany their student husbands, children are actively discouraged. He told of brusque airport separations upon arrival and days of isolation experienced by wives who insisted on bringing children to the Soviet Union.)

Relations at MGU between American and Soviet students are friendly but seldom warm. Some Soviet students seemed suspiciously ingratiating, so the Americans tended to maintain their distance. When asked about surveillance, the Indiana student told about a colleague who stood under the chandelier in his room one night and said, "I wish I could improve my Russian; I'd gladly exchange guitar lessons for some Russian conversation." Next day, a stranger knocked at the door and asked, "Is there anyone here who would care to exchange Russian lessons for, say, guitar instruction?"

Back to the ESS visit at MGU: The Soviet professor continued by saying that the trade unions of academic professors likewise participated in all questions related to faculty wellbeing. He said that if a faculty member disagreed with a budgetary or salary decision, he could also appeal directly to the Rector or to the Ministry of Higher Education. With regard to salary, a candidat earns 250-300 rubles a month (compared to an industrial worker at 100 rubles). A full professor with a doctorate receives 400 rubles, while a senior professor receives 450 and a department chairman 500 rubles, he stated.

(A physicist at Leningrad University, however, indicated that his salary was in excess of 600 rubles and complained in private conversation that he suffered from a shortage of luxury products to buy. He imported all his clothing and personal effects from Finland through friends who travel there frequently. Widely traveled himself, urbane and sophisticated, he spoke fluent English and commented perceptively about the pollution problems of major American cities.)

The standard college program takes five years in the Soviet Union, the last year devoted to a research thesis. Students usually decide at the end of the third year what specialty they will pursue. Counseling is accomplished mainly by other students in the early years; faculty guidance begins at the time a specialty is chosen.

In a revealing interchange, one Soviet faculty member first ducked and then stumbled candidly on a question about the typical professor's day at MGU. He first stated that there was no typical day, then hedged by saying that he spent most of his time in the laboratory, concluding that the Soviet academic profession conformed to no standard description.

Yet his further discussion contained so many references to leisure, independent research, and free time that he could well have belonged to any major university faculty in the world. He confessed that his best day was when he had no classes! Typically, he declared, a full professor teaches two seminars, attends monthly faculty meetings, and conducts research. Great emphasis was placed on book-writing and arranging with the department chairman for a semester without classes for fulltime research. He noted with evident pleasure that sabbaticals are granted every five years. (The academic syndrome obviously transcends Marxist ideology.)

When someone asked about Soviet educational problems, the guarded response was that only a "subjective reply" was possible, but perhaps the major problem was to prepare the best specialists possible of their students in the five years available to them. Students should not be like vessels into which knowledge is poured, the professor maintained, but rather like fires to which ideas are fed. Finally, he concluded, educators at MGU strive to make Soviet scientific work more efficient and effective for the needs of the economy.

The faculty member feigned modesty when asked about the public's regard for MGU. It was difficult for him to reply, he said, because he was forced to compliment his university. He stated that Moscow State University was the pre-eminent educational institution in the Soviet Union, and that there were six student applications for every place at MGU in contrast to a ratio of two to one at other Soviet universities.

The Soviet citizens hold MGU in the highest regard, he contended, and extend great credibility to the judgement of its faculty. The Rector of MGU is a member of the Supreme Soviet and has now been appointed to the Presidium. The teaching staff, he said, is unparalleled in the Soviet Union with 23 Heroes of Socialist Labor on the faculty. Some 75% of the Academy of Chemical Science are MGU chemistry professors, while more than 20 are Lenin Prize holders. He concluded that, although the Soviet Union had many other fine institutions, MGU was clearly the best as well as the oldest (founded in 1750 or so).

Finally, we were informed that an average of 85 percent of all matriculating students graduate. Those who do not graduate usually leave for health or personal reasons. Attrition occurs almost exclusively during the first or second year, attributable to lack of interest or inability to adjust to academic life. At least 95 percent of all students do well in their studies at MGU. Graduates are eagerly sought by government and industry, so the university degree is highly prized.

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KIEV UNIVERSITY: THE FACULTY OF SCIENCES

(by Jacquelyn Hall)

The U.S. participants were Dr. Lee Burchinal, National Institute of Education; Dr. Ronald Rieder, National Institute of Mental Health; and Jacquelyn Hall, National Institute of Mental Health. The U.S.S.R. participants from the faculty of Kiev University were a Professor of Mathematical Physics, an Academic Dean for the science division of the University, and the Chairman of the Cybernetics Department. In response to questions from the American participants, the members of the sciences faculty offered the following information:

Research Funding at Kiev University

Research is an important aspect of the University's work, and last year the science division of Kiev University had a total research budget of five and one half million Rubles.

Faculty members propose research projects according to their interests and expertise. Their proposals include detailed plans for the investment of manpower, equipment, and financial research. The entire set of faculty proposals is submitted to the Council of Ministers of the Ukraine. The Council may or may not approve money for the projects. Typically they do not approve funding for every proposal that is submitted, and usually two or three projects would be approved for each of the 136 chairs (faculties--comparable to U.S. departments). The Kiev professors, however, report that they have no problem in deciding which projects to fund within each faculty group, for "everyone knows" which projects are the most important and should be given top priority. The professors seemed puzzled at our questions on how to allay the anger of those whose proposals are not funded, and they found it hard to understand why it was of concern to us!

The ideas for research to be funded through this system are generated by faculty members themselves, and they are not dictated by the Republic or by the U.S.S.R. government but if the Council of Ministers of the Ukranian Republic does not grant what the University wants, and the University feels its need for a specific item is particularly strong, it can appeal to the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. for the necessary funds. Also, the Council occasionally will grant extra monies for a particular item over and above the usual research program; for example, last year the Department of Cybernetics was granted an extra 400,000 Rubles for the purchase of a computer.

Research support, however, is not implemented entirely through University-Governmental channels. Each faculty member is free to negotiate a research "agreement" with an outside enterprise. Having worked out such an agreement, the faculty member directing the research gets money from the enterprise, and that money goes into the general research budget. One example of this was described in which an industrial enterprise contracted with the University geology department to devise a new drainage system.

Investment of research monies on the part of outside enterprise contributes substantially to the amount of money available for research. Last year, for example, at Kiev University the Republic appropriated two million Rubles for research, while enterprises contributed another three and one half million Rubles. Thus, the total scientific research budget was five and one half million Rubles.

The Cybernetics Department

The Cybernetics Department of Kiev University, although it is only three and a half years old, now has 1,400 students and is the biggest department of the University. The decision to establish the cybernetics department was made officially by the Ukranian Council of Ministers in May, 1969. Many existing students and faculty were merged into the Cybernetics Department, and some new chairs (faculties) were established. Departmental chairs now include theoretical cybernetics, economic cybernetics, applied linguistics, and applied mathematics (including computer sciences).

The Professor's Workload

Professors at Kiev University have little free time and limited time for research. As faculty members, they must advise students and monitor their research; half of their time is spent in classroom teaching. In addition, the University association often brings other responsibilities for Communist Party work, social activities, and publishing. Therefore, the University professor (much like his American counterpart) sometime looks with envy at his colleagues working in research institutes where intense, full-time research is possible. Nevertheless, many professors feel that the University offers more freedom for choosing research topics and developing ideas than a research institute, for the government exercises less direct control over University research.

The Computer Center

We visited the University Computer Center where we saw two types of computers. The first was a small model called the Mir-1, which had been designed and built by faculty and students at the University. The Kiev University model was adopted by industry, and now the Mir-1 is being produced and sold in other parts of the Soviet Union.

The University's largest computer, an M-220, was produced by a plant in Kazan. It uses magnetic tape and a drum for storing and accessing information. Next year they expect to get a larger computer that is comparable to the IBM 360 system in the U.S.A.; it will have disk storage and access capability.

The computers and accessories (keypunch, printer, etc.) are used for training students in the Cybernetics Department as well as for research analyses and information storage for the University.

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KIEV UNIVERSITY: HISTORY AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS
(by Keith Hartwell)

The Rector of the University is Chairman of the Kiev Supreme Soviet, attesting to his political stature in the Ukraine. There are a total of 35,000 in the entire University community; 2,200 are members of the Communist Party. There are Scientific Counsels which are their "Faculty Senate'. Some students do sit on these.

Asked about how they choose foreign books, faculty members said that they watch the major newspapers for them and then order them. It is interesting in that we have not seen a major American newspaper since being here other than the Daily World which the English speaking school said they used as an American paper.

Some dialogue from a small group discussion with faculty members in the humanities went as follows:

Question: What is the proportion of enrollment?

Answer: There are many more students who want to enter this field than in the exact sciences. However, the actual breakdown of those entering these areas is 50/50. We produce plans for various future time periods as to what we will need and try to direct students in those areas. The plans are not totally inflexible, alterations being made as we go on.

What areas are especially needed?

All areas...particularly in the new sciences--management, cybernetics, biology. Still we find many human needs. For instance, as we expanded research in oceanography, we found a need for more lawyers trained in sea rights and international maritime law.

To what degree does the number of applications to a given department determine the number accepted?

In principle none. The night courses and correspondence courses usually supply these extra demands.

What kind of research funds come to the University and from where?

There are two main methods of financing scientific research work. The first and most important is State Financing--i.e., the Minister of Finance. There is also some financing from industrial enterprises interested in various areas. "Needless to say, this means extra money for sciences, not humanities," said a professor of history.

What restrictions are there on books you can buy, order, or read?
We use all published Soviet materials (books, letters, memoirs, etc.) and the best works from foreign countries. There are no restrictions, but we use only useful books from a scientific point of view.

Who decides on this "usefulness"?
Every professor watches the world press very carefully, then picks out the best books and orders them.

How are dissertations chosen?
The faculty makes up a list of choices or the student can suggest his own for approval.

Do you publish--is it important?
The main items of a dissertation should be published. The most important scientific ideas should become known throughout the country.

Do you feel "publish or perish" pressure?
The tendency is the same as in the United States.

What constitutes a full teaching assignment, and who determines it?
It is up to the Chair of the Faculty to decide. In humanities, it is about 560-600 hours a year. In Natural Sciences about 800 hours a year. However, our system of counting is different from yours. In that 560-600 hours we include sessions other than lectures--counseling, exams, special seminars, etc. In simple lectures we carry about 100 hours.

We spoke at some length with an historian, Professor Brucz, who had an excellent command of English. He had been to the United States as a UNESCO Fellow, and traveled widely in both the United States and Europe.

We asked him for his interpretations of various historical events, e.g., the Brest-Litovsk Treaty in World War I and the more recent Cold War. He knew our interpretations and understood, I believe, that these were interpretations of only some in the West.

He talked about both Stalin and Khruschev. On Stalin he admitted there were some excesses, but contended that a great deal of Socialist construction went on in that period, and that was good. As to the purges, he mentioned two "objective" factors and one "subjective" factor:

1) The world situation in which the Soviet Union was "a Communist island in a Capitalist sea". ("We were in very great danger" and had to advance rapidly to a self-sustaining posture.)

2) Class enemies inside the U.S.S.R.

3) Stalin was a very suspicious man by nature and liked power.

An interesting by-play occurred when Professor Brucz was asked about the dismissal of Krushchev. As usual, a bright-eyed young man sat in on the group, saying nothing but hearing everything. Brucz responded that Krushchev left power because "he was an old man." When pressed for Krushchev's age, however, Brucz turned to the young aide and engaged in a rapid-fire Russian conversation. To our surprise, he then announced that the answer so complex that he would switch to Russian and rely upon the aide to interpret in English.

Up to that moment, Brucz had been speaking fluent English. The young aide was obviously filtering Brucz's response, if he were not actually making the state-approved reply in Brucz's stead. What the man said (in flawless English) was that Krushchev's actual age was not so important as the hard life he had led, which had taken such a toll that it was difficult for him to deal with a "great scope of work" any longer. Brucz then picked up our conversation in English again.

The Soviet Union, Brucz stated, is not run by one man. The identity of one leader or another is of no real importance because the Supreme Soviet and the Communist Party are collective democratic institutions which hold ultimate power. "Stories in foreign journals are not accurate," he said, when they portray Soviet leaders as all-powerful.

An extraordinary man, Professor Brucz made a clear and reasoned rationale for Soviet policy in the Cold War. It was fascinating to sit in the University of Kiev and listen to a Soviet intellectual discuss in measured terms the viewpoint of Russian foreign policy after World War II. He said that "the only way to frustrate Fascism was to occupy Germany-- not because we had imperialist aspirations" but to insure peace. "Some Western countries--like Great Britain--feared our great strength and thought we would occupy countries other than those we liberated from Germany. For example, Churchill ordered Montgomery to take German armaments because they might be useful to use as instruments against us if necessary." Brucz referred to Churchill's famous Iron Curtain speech in Fulton, Missouri, as a call for all "Anglo-Saxon peoples to launch a crusade against Russia." But, he said, "our economy was so weak--we had been virtually destroyed at that time; to suggest that we had aggressive ambition was nonsense."

He commented favorably upon the new rapprochment between the East and West, explaining that it came about as a result of realism on the part of France and the United States, not because of weakness on either side. Concerning the invasions of Czechoslovakia and Hungary, Professor Brucz referred to the treaties of mutual assistance between the Soviet Union and these countries. "Enemies of Socialism arose, and the Soviet Union came to the aid of the workers for protection of their children."

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KIEV UNIVERSITY: THE DECISIONMAKING PROCESS

(by Martha Phillips)

Status of Women

About 1/3 total faculty are women;
25 percent heads of "chairs" are women;
50 percent post-graduate students are women (but not all of them go on to teaching at the university level);
15-20 percent full professors are women.
There are significant differences in the percentage of women in the different faculties--linguistics, for example, has only two men. The percentage of women on the faculty increases from year to year, moreover.

How many students will train in each department?

How is this decided? The Moscow Gosplan disseminates information on 1990 manpower needs to the Ukranian Gosplan which, in turn, makes this information known to the Ukranian Ministry of Education and finally to the University.

Geographic distribution: The Ukraine receives information on how many workers of each type will be needed in that Republic, and then that number would be trained after the decision had been made as to whether the university or some other institution was best suited for each training task.

Gosplan is not too specific: It states the number of specialties that will be needed in each field, but the University must determine how to train people for these specialties and which subspecialties are needed.

Curriculum: The universities of Kiev, Moscow, Leningrad, and Novosibirsk develop their own curriculum; the others must submit their curriculum to the Education Ministry. This is not a recent innovation, since these four universities have long been considered to be extraordinary.

University input to Gosplan: The university makes direct recommendations. For example, the university might recommend the establishment of a new specialty.

Future changes: (What recommendations would the vice rector make for changes in the next five years?) At present, there is a discussion underway between the university and the high schools and vocational schools. The Vice Rector stated that he felt that students should have better preparation prior to entering the university: i.e., elementary school should start at age six and not seven, and students should receive 12 years of training prior to university entrance.

Also, there is a need for more interaction between the humanities and the sciences. Math is useful in instructing in many subjects, for example.

Scientific Councils: There is a university scientific council and there are departmental (i.e., division or college) scientific councils--none on the "chair" level. Chair-level problems are solved by faculty and students within the chair. Since practically every student (and faculty member) is a member of the Ministry of Higher Education Trade Union, the union is also represented on these councils.

Drop outs: The phenomenon of dropping in and out of university studies does not exist, except that a student in poor health can take one year off, and this leave may be taken twice by a student.

Is Educational Technology used to extend the reach of the university? Yes, computer centers are used for education and for solving scientific problems. Radio and TV lectures are used; these help correspondence students but are not part of a specific course. Correspondence students must come to the University for their examinations. An attempt is being made to lower the number of correspondence students; more dormitories are being built. Besides, " even 24 hours a day is not enough time for studying."

Humanities: Can there be an increase in the percentage of students in humanities even if more specialists in these fields are not needed? Answer: The Gosplan has not decided to increase the number studying humanities.

Match between applicants and slots: Are students seeking admittance in greater numbers than available slots permit in some fields limited to small numbers of students? Answer: We take only the number allowed. Representatives are sent to the ninth and tenth forms to brief students on the number of applications in each field to be selected in the following year. Graduates automatically receive jobs. If there is no job available, the university will pay a scholarship until a job is found.

Preparatory department takes workers, peasants, and veterans for one year's preparation for the university entrance exam. They can be admitted to the university with grades of "three's" instead of the usual "four's" and "five's". The preparatory department accepts only those who have been employed for one year.

Research topics are recommended by industry and the ministries, who then contract with a chair in the University to carry out a certain piece of needed research. The chair assigns a faculty member to do the research once the contract is signed, and more specialists may be hired. Faculty members may do part-time work for outside institutes. Faculty members wishing to do research in a field for which no contract has been made can propose it as part of the plan for the entire chair. If adopted, it becomes part of the plan, and funds are provided.

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PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE OF THE UKRAINE, KIEV

(by Robert L. Klassen)

The Institute cooperates with both the Ministry of Education of the Ukraine and the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow, yet maintains its unique research role for educational problems in the Ukraine from preschool to higher education in 26 departments and four laboratories. The Deputy Director repeated the already familiar 24th Congress party line which defined the educational problems as those involved with the compulsory new ten year educational requirement and the attendant need to reform the curriculum. The solutions were stated in pedantic terms--advancement of the teaching process, introduction of mechanical aids, and increasing the knowledge of teachers.

The goals of their applied research were cited as follows:

(1) To study ways to bring students through the compulsory ten years;

(2) To correlate research with the latest developments in science and technology;

(3) To devise new methods for teaching;

(4) To intensify the educational process and the development of mental abilities;

(5) To improve textbooks and develop new educational programs into the textbooks.

The discussion elicited the fact that the individual schools will only adopt new curriculum proposed by the Republic Ministry of Education after appropriate research by the Institute. One of the basic research concerns of the Institute is to look at how the system can compress primary education from four years to three years--a requirement of the Five-Year Plan adopted by the 24th Congress. The Deputy Director indicated that he felt children can accept more theoretical knowledge than formerly believed and that this will be a prime consideration in the reform of the primary education curriculum.

The Ukraine secondary schools have 7,000,000 students and 500,000 teachers. In 1971-1972, 85 percent of the graduates went on to vocational or specialized schools.

In response to the question of incorporating research findings into the educational process, the Deputy Director noted that the Institute had three-five demonstration schools attached to it for initial testing of research results. Teachers are invited to evaluate the activities there, then subsequently, a successive adoption pattern through the District, Region and the Republic takes place until uniformity is achieved on implementation. The success, if any, would be appropriately communicated to the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Education and the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. The Deputy Director also noted that there are advanced courses for practicing teachers at the Institute so that results can be more effectively disseminated. In rare cases, a Scientific Worker from the Institute would go to the local school to aid the teacher in carrying out the new methods--all in all, a rather pedantic lesson on ideological educational research.

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INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

(by Alice Y. Scates)

On Monday, November 27, 1972 seven ESS members visited the Institute of Adult Education Research in Leningrad. The director of this Institute, who talked with us, is Anatol Victorovich Darinski, Professor and Doctor of Pedagogical Science, Member-Correspondent of the Academy of Pedagogical Science, U.S.S.R. The Institute is located at Naberezhnaja, Kutuzova 8 in Leningrad. This is one of the 11 scientific research institutes which make up the Academy of Pedagogical Science. The other ten are located in Moscow. All 11 of the Institutes serve the entire U.S.S.R. in their areas of specialty, but this is the only one dealing exclusively with adults.

Work of the Institute

The institute has approximately 100 scientific research workers. It works with the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Education, the corresponding State Institutes of Adult Education, the Knowledge Society, and the Education Section of Trade Unions. Each state in the U.S.S.R. has a similar research institute in its own Ministry of Education. Each has its own curriculum and textbooks, but this central Institute makes recommendations and deals with general problems. It provides a standard plan. It works with seven state "branches" in Moscow, Sverdlovsk, Riga, Minsk, Kiev, Rostoff-on-Don, and Frunze. (The Institute has an information section, but it deals only with information about adult education in other countries, not in the Soviet Union.)

Dr. Darinski seemed very well informed on adult education in other countries. He was able to comment on when and where conferences were being held, what clearinghouses were in operation, and where in various national governments there was responsibility for the education of adults. He has published articles in the International Adult Education journal.

The Institute operates its own secondary school. This enables it to carry out tests of any program there first. When a successful framework is developed, and the evidence is clear, the final curriculum is recommended to the Soviet Ministry of Education for distribution throughout the U.S.S.R. For example, in a pedagogical experiment they developed several variations of a geography curriculum for ninth grade night classes. In order to determine which was best, they gave the different versions to similar groups to see how successfully each group performed.

The Institute is doing research on the intellectual development of adults similar to the work by Wexler and Bellevue in preparing a test widely used in the United States. They are concerned with such things as memory, attention, thinking process, and psychological as well as physiological functions. In its early stages, they will try out tests on their own 100 scientific workers, the Institute staff members. Then they will also conduct natural experiments on regular classes to gather data on these same factors. They analyze their data, make correlations, and draw out principles. Related work is also being done on the sociological aspects of educating adults. The Institute publishes bibliographies of its current experiments, so that others in the U.S.S.R. may keep informed about what is going on.

An example of an area in which the Institute works to improve curriculum is Parent Education. This is a very popular subject in the Soviet Union. It is provided by the People's Universities, and approximately 50 percent of the students are pensioners, mostly grandmothers taking care of their grandchildren as an alternative to sending them to nursery school.

The Institute conducted an experiment which showed that TV learning among adults was very low. (Dr. Darinski lectured on this experiment in paris at a UNESCO meeting last year.) There are some adult education courses offered on television, and in several cities there is a program for training adult educators by television. However, TV is not considered a major alternative form of education because the classroom group with its constant interactions among members is the more successful vehicle in the Soviet Union.

Dr. Darinski provided an example of how a person interested in a topic such as Conservation might pursue learning in this area. He could begin at an elementary level by enrolling in correspondence courses. He might attend evening classes offered by the People's University at the Palace of Culture, or he might participate in activities of the Society for the Preservation of Nature in Leningrad. His choice would probably be determined by the level of knowledge he already had about the subject.

The Place of Adult Education in the Soviet System

At the present time, school attendance is compulsory through the eighth grade, but the Soviet Union is in the process of converting to a full ten-year program for every one. Current figures show that, after completing the eighth grade, 60 percent of secondary students go on to complete the tenth grade, and 15 percent go to vocational schools. However, from 15 to 20 percent of the people go directly to work in industry after finishing the eighth grade, continuing their secondary education by attending evening classes. Part of the reason for this is that there is still a great need for industrial workers in the U.S.S.R. as a result of technological progress. Also, we were told that young Soviet men want to have their own money so that they can be independent. Not everyone is successful in school and some are bored. After finishing the eighth grade, an individual can get a job anywhere. The State wants everyone to have a secondary education but does not force them to continue if they choose to go to work.

However, there are strong means for motivating the workers to continue their education in evening schools. These motivators include (1) Trade unions, (2) the Knowledge Society (which might well be a source of status), (3) Factory management, and (4) the individual himself who may be motivated to study by the convenience of opportunities at or near his place of work or his home and by the choice offered in a variety of forms and hours.

Less than 1 percent of the Soviets are reportedly illiterate. In 1939, the U.S.S.R. decided to "liquidate" illiteracy. No matter how poorly prepared the individual may be when he leaves school he is picked up by his trade union or some other group which exerts social pressure on him to continue along toward a higher level of education.

Structure of Adult Education

One of the Institute's major areas of concentration is correspondence and evening classes at the secondary level. There are four million students in adult education with approximately 602,700 graduating each year. This represents one-fourth of the total number graduating annually from secondary schools. About ten percent of the evening students are over 30 years of age. This proportion is, of course, much larger in the People's Universities.

The Institute works on developing instructions for teachers in such areas as methods, curricula, and textbooks. The Institute also relays general instructions from the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Education and serves as a kind of consulting center for the nation in implementing these instructions.

Although frequent mention was made of correspondence education, this is actually an alternative form of the evening school. The evening school is in session for 20 hours per week (four days of five hours each) during which there are classes or consultations on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday. These classes are generally lecture sessions. By contrast, the correspondence school offers only eight hours per week (four hours per day for two days). The time is split between meetings for the group as a whole plus individual consultation. The correspondence school represents largely individual study. The students are not required to attend individual consultations, but they have examinations which they must pass. During the consultations, teachers give the main points to be covered, and the students study individually. No written work is turned in, but the group attends a last class meeting, and then they take the final exam.

There are branches of correspondence instruction attached to academic (day) secondary schools, and the secondary school teachers instruct the correspondence classes as a second job. Every village of 200 or more people has a correspondence school for adult education. The villages are organized into districts, so that an adult may study in his own village but will take the final exam in the district seat. They accumulate credits and eventually get a certificate of graduation from the secondary school.

"Uninterrupted" education is another area in which the Institute is working. The term refers to what we might call "continuing" education, and it comes after completion of the secondary school. It consists of non-credit courses of varying lengths covering any and all content areas in which there is an interest. Usually such courses are offered through the People's Universities, which are not state establishments.

The People's Universities probably play the major role in continuing education. They are free of charge and enroll about seven million students. They may offer as many as 500 to 600 different content areas such as art, literature, nature conservation, and so forth. They also deal with skill areas. Their purpose is to provide a means for an adult to continue his general education, improve his skills in his chosen profession, or even change his career field.

The University of Leningrad has its own Trade Union which nominates the Director of the Extracurricular People's University of Leningrad. The Director is a volunteer as are most of the Lecturers who are also likely to be members of the University faculty. They regard it as an honor to be asked to give a lecture in the People's University and do not expect any pay for doing so. However, if someone is asked to give a series of lectures under contract with the People's University, he would be paid about 25 to 30 Rubles per lecture. This is because special preparation would be required, and he might speak in a special lecture hall to as many as 500 people. Individuals are paid according to their rank and status. (Dr. Darinski commented that he received 25 Rubles as a former rector of the People's University. One ruble was the equivalent of approximately $1.20.)

Supporting Social Structures

The national Knowledge Society unites the intellectuals who want to disseminate knowledge. It is made up of professional workers and specialists in almost every discipline. The Knowledge Society dues are 40 kopecs per year which is simply a token amount.

The Society in Leningrad has many different technical sections, including one on pedagogy of which Dr. Darinski is the chairman. (It may be somewhat similar to our own American Association for the Advancement of Science which has sections on Education and Psychology as well as the sciences.) Every city, town, and district has such a Knowledge Society. There is an All-Union Society of Knowledge. Not only does it aim to disseminate knowledge itself, but it acts as headquarters for the regional and local chapters.

The Society will arrange lectures on almost any topic for an interested workers' group. It provides lectures, for example, on such topics as technical processes used in manufacturing which a factory may desire for its work force, health problems such as heart attacks or alcoholism, or arts and culture like the Armand Hammer Art Collection which was then on exhibition at the Hermitage Museum. (These lectures were desired by so many different organizations that they probably accounted for the amazingly long lines of people we saw waiting for admission to the museum on Sunday morning.)

One of the most important factors in the education of adults is the Trade Union. The most important part of the Union's role is to stimulate the education of young people who work and study simultaneously, usually to complete secondary school. The Union helps motivate them to do this. The Institute of Adult Education provides advice and counsel to the unions on the psychology of student-workers as well as on curriculum, methodology, and course structure.

An example of the Trade Unions' procedures is provided by a large shoe factory in Leningrad which employes thousands of workers. These workers are at various levels of educational achievement. A major goal of the Soviet Union is to provide complete secondary education through grade ten for everybody. The factory is responsible for planning the "social development" of all its workers, including housing, education, recreation, and health.

The factory and the union work out a work-study plan for both secondary and higher education opportunity and devise measures to encourage young people to continue part-time study. Those who study and work get one day off per week for classes and receive half pay for that day. (The factory administration is reportedly not too enthusiastic about this because it cuts down on productivity, but the Trade Union helps enforce the practice.)

The Soviet Union also believes that every worker has a right to perfect his general knowledge and continue his education beyond the secondary level. Such topics as history, literature, and biology admittedly do not have much to do with the manufacture of shoes, but the Trade Union protects this educational right even though the factory administrators want only work-related study rather than general courses. (The Institute of Adult Education works out examinations for these general education courses.)

Industry is required to give part of its profits for social and cultural activities. The Trade Unions also help to enforce this requirement. The Institute of Adult Education therefore gives advice and instructions to the Trade Unions about how such funds should be divided between secondary and continuing education.

Note: This is a factual account--insofar as possible--of the comments and responses to questions by Dr. Darinski during our meeting. The content seems to be generally in agreement with the material in Rosen's volume Education in the U.S.S.R., but the conversational approach provided a more personal flavor.

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Chapter V

TEACHER TRAINING

Soviet elementary and secondary students wear uniforms to school in much the manner of American parochial schools. Heavy, dark, and woolen, the clothing is sturdy and warm although somber. The teachers were generally stocky and heavy, whether male or female, having long lived on a diet of bread and potatoes as staples.

But the pre-eminent characteristic we preceived was the kindness which teachers displayed toward their charges. In small ways, we saw teacher after teacher speak or relate to students with gentle regard. Although this is a conformist society of strong constraints, it is marked by teachers who seem to believe that the student is as important as the subjects they teach.

Corporal punishment is grounds for immediate dismissal from a Soviet school, and the teacher is considered responsible if students fail to learn. While discipline is strict, violence in word or deed is absolutely prohibited. Incentives rather than punishment impel learning. Good students are rewarded with pins, ribbons, public notice, summer camps, Pioneer Palace memberships, and constant praise. Slow students receive help from fellow students; they are commended when they show effort.

Soviet school teachers have a rugged life. They are expected not only to discharge their primary profession but also to serve in other community and neighborhood extracurricular activities, often without remumeration. Their responsibility to their students requires considerable individual consultation. They work with summer camp groups in summer and must often respond to calls for their specialty in the Pioneer House. The surprise is that so many young people are willing to prepare themselves for a life of such selfless service.

The report which follows was prepared as a special report by a member of the ESS group and includes research data as well as observations gained in the Soviet Union.

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TEACHER TRAINING

(by Donald K. Sharpes)

American public schools shun deliberate attempts to inject religion or politics into the fabric of the school system. Soviet schools are markedly different. They are clearly and overtly an instrument of the Communist Party and the Soviet government. Soviet schools are the state's way of preparing Russian children and youth for a Communist view of the world and for the "impending" world revolution.

The political bias is perceptible even to the casual observer. The ideology is recognizable; it is everywhere; it is clearly Marxist-Leninist. Every principal of a school is a Communist Party member, in a country where less than ten percent of the population are active members. Every teacher knows well the ultimate good of all instruction--the work of "our party and our government."

"Education is one of the component parts of the struggle we are waging," said V. I. Lenin at the First All Union Congress on Education in August, 1918. The educational process he had in mind then is now uniformly the same. It is not universal democracy but universal political indoctrination.

A recent publication upholds the validity of the claim: "Soviet youth is the pride of our country. It is our most precious capital, our future.

Its training for life and active participation in the building of communism and its upbringing in labor and for labor is the subject of special concern of the Communist Party and the Soviet state."

New Trends

Since the developments of the 24th Party Congress in 1970, there has been a new impetus, say Soviet educational leaders, in education that has ignited new plans for curricula, policies, and organization of schools. Two of particular note are the compressing of elementary education from the fourth to the third grade, and the introduction of basic subjects in the fourth rather than the fifth grade.

In effect, primary education has been shortened by one year, and now includes only the first three grades. Compulsory attendance at secondary school was also extended from the eighth to the tenth grade. Secondary education is now compulsory, and the optional 11th year was eliminated. Students thus begin their secondary education at about ten years of age, and can enter the university at about 16 years of age.

There have been some notable examples of the changes in the organization of schools in recent years. In 1965, the Central Committee of the Communist Party passed a degree mandating improvements in the pedagogical and ideological training of teachers.

The Ministry of Education of the U.S.S.R. was formed only in 1966, centralizing control in that coordinating agency.

As the importance of research and coordination of programs in the burgeoning bureaucracy became more apparent, a Council of Coordination of Research was established in the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in 1969. In fact, as new issues prevailed, they were soon incorporated into the schools by legislation. In 1971 ,for example, the Central Committee of the Communist Party took steps to begin a comprehensive campaign for the economic education of adults to take effect in the 1972-73 academic year.

The point in all this is that trends in education originated from the ideology at the top of the political pyramid. What happened in the schools was and is inextricably and ineluctably bound up with the politics of the Communist Party.

The cause of universal literacy is significant in the Soviet educational scheme. According to the latest (1970) statistical report, there was a 62 percent increase in the number of persons who had a secondary or higher education than there was in 1959. "The working people are thirsting for knowledge...that failures are due to lack of education, and that now it is up to them really to give everyone access to education..." So said Lenin in 1918. His realization is coming true.

Organization of Teacher Education

Twin concepts underpin all Soviet education, and therefore teacher education: the use of schools and higher education facilities as a form of ideological control, and the centralization of all educational systems under state domination.

Educating teachers is thus likewise controlled by the central government. There are several links to this centralized control. There are two ministries with complementary responsibilities: The Ministry of Education, and the Ministry of Specialized and Higher Education. (Specialized secondary schools are those in which students emphasize a particular discipline while continuing the general secondary curriculum, such as a foreign language, science, or math.) The Ministry of Culture also maintains a system of after hours schools in music.

The Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the U.S.S.R. is the research arm of both ministries and coordinates the work of teacher education and research. In addition, each republic (there are fifteen) has a pedagogical institute or teacher training college. These are the largest group of higher education institutions in the U.S.S.R. In larger republics, such as the Ukraine, other institutions also prepare and train different kinds of educational specialists. Some include:

1) The system of state universities

2) Pedagogical research institutes

3) Advanced Studies centers or teacher centers

Technically, the Ministry of Education in each republic exercises control over the preparation and training of teachers. In practice, however, the Ministry of Specialized and Higher Education carries out supervisory responsibilities. The central ministry has total autonomy over science, research, methodology, and teaching. Thus, programs of study are prescribed, although there are some modifications within republics. The national language, for example, is the language of instruction rather than Russian in the constituent republics.

The position of the teacher, according to all Soviet educational leaders, is preeminent and indispensable. A prospective teacher would normally attend a pedagogical institute (about 80 percent of all teachers have), as they exist solely for the training of secondary school teachers. She would normally attend the institute for five years, and would specialize in either the physical sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, linguistics, aesthetics, or perhaps defectology--special education.

The Hertzen Pedagogical Institute in Leningrad is the showcase example. It was the first Socialist pedagogical institute of higher learning. The decree establishing it was signed in 1918 by Lenin, Maxim Gorky, and Lunacharsky, later first Soviet Commissar of Education. It is, like its counterparts in other Soviet republics, the customary pre-service teacher training institution for the secondary school. It is also, through its advanced studies center, the major re-trainer of experienced teachers.

At Hertzen, 800 teaching faculty and 420 assistant doctors (called "candidates" but equivalent to the doctorate) help prepare a student body of approximately 13,000 for the schools and institutes and universities of the Russian republic and the Arctic regions of the U.S.S.R.

Graduates of a pedagogical institute like Hertzen receive a diploma in their specialty, not a B.A. which also certifies them to teach. There is no separate degree and certification process. Prior to graduation, a prospective teacher must write a thesis in his or her specialty. After graduation, he or she may enter a three-year postgraduate program. One year of this is required to pass the examination, and two years to write a dissertation. These graduates of postgraduate programs, "candidates", then have the right to teach at the university or one of the institutes.

Finally, all teacher education activities are a part of the state's econmic planning. The governmental planning organization, known as Gosplan, that regulates the economy is similar to our Office of Management and Budget, Federal Reserve Board, and Council of Economic Advisors all in one. It has a hand in determining educational policies and implementation through the budget allocation process.

Teacher Preparation Programs

Pedagogical institutes exist only to train secondary teachers, and enroll roughly 25 percent of the higher education population. Nearly 80 percent of those enrolled are women, the men preferring to enter technical institutes.

Applicants who have had two years of experience in work production or agriculture are given preference for admission as candidates in pedagogical institutes. 80 percent of the first year slots are set aside for such candidates. Thus, the majority of teachers have had work experience in farms or factories before they begin their formal preparation program. Military service also counts as work experience.

Entrance exams last ten days. They are both oral and written, and take place before both general study committees and the faculty of prospective specialization. Exams test the applicant's knowledge of Russian language and literature, foreign language, and general academic learning.

What would a typical course of study include? The organization of faculties at Hertzen looks like this:

Philology
Pedagogy
Biology and Chemistry
Geography
Mathematics and Technical Drafting
Physical Education
Aesthetic Education
Defectology

The faculties are called "chairs," each of which is headed by a full professor or dean. Take math, for example, from among the 36 specialties at Hertzen. There are three chairs in math--mathematical analysis, algebra and geometry, and elementary mathematics and methods of teaching mathematics. The five year course of study in math would therefore include elementary math, methods of math, algebra, geometry, math analysis, calculus, etc.

The "foundations" or social science component would also include pedagogy, some psychology, and political discipline and scientific communism. Required subjects in this area would be: History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Political Economy, and Historical and Dialectical Materialism.

In general, the curriculum for teacher education is not based on the liberal arts. The assumption is that students have already received such preparation in secondary school. Every secondary graduate will have studied a foreign language for six years. In spite of that, a prospective teacher will be required to study that language or another for an additional two years.

Prospective teachers enter their internship in the third year of their five year program. They teach for six weeks under supervision. They also work with the Young Pioneers, the organization which coordinates all extracurricular activities for children aged nine to 14. In their fourth year,they teach in demonstration or cooperating schools from eight to ten weeks. Thus, by the time they begin their teaching careers they will have taught for six months.

During internship , they learn to work with each grade's "leading" teacher in a school. The "leading" teacher is responsible for moral and cultural upbringing of the children in that grade. Her role and responsibility, however, extend to the children and not the grade itself. Thus, the "leading" teacher continues her responsibility to an entire class, moving with it through the grades, and staying with the children for several years.

Unique to Soviet higher education is the system of supporting students with stipends. About 80 percent of regular daytime students receive stipends to finance their education. These are, in effect, state scholarships provided so that students can devote full time to their studies without the necessity of working part-time on a job. Thus the state considers study as a full time activity, and satisfactory performance is expected. A candidate for a diploma who fails to measure up to minimum standards will lose his stipend and may be eliminated from the program.

Prospective teachers who receive high marks are eligible for honor stipends which pay as much as 25 percent more. The unique system of incentive pay for students in higher education extends to superior students, and also to students in special subjects such as defectology. Students participating in the work of the mentally retarded may receive as much as 50 percent more than the average stipend. The differential in stipend is not the same everywhere but differs according to the extent the state wishes to encourage or discourage the pursuit of certain subjects.

A graduate of a pedagogical institute can express his or her wishes about a preferred teaching position. But academic success and the particular needs of schools are larger factors in determining where a teacher is assigned. Generally, married couples are sent where the husband's job is.

A teacher accepts an assignment for three years. Since there are no placement bureaus or employment agencies, those who wish to transfer elsewhere must use their own resources. But all graduates are guaranteed a teaching position. Usually the number of students enrolled in a program is determined by the number of future teachers Gosplan feels the schools need. Stipend incentive is one way of controlling enrollment; restricted admissions is another. Biology and geography teachers, for instance, were not especially needed in the early 1970's, so the number of student slots was restricted.

Teachers who wish to improve their educational qualifications may also receive instruction in university programs or in evening or correspondence courses offered through the university or institute.

The curriculum for teacher education at universities is mostly identical to that of the sister pedagogical institute, though the accent is heavier on subject matter. There are no chairs of methodology or pedagogy in the universities.

Correspondence and evening courses at both universities and institutes are extremely popular. Over 40 percent of the higher education population is enrolled in such teacher training courses. The reasons for the popularity are several. First, the restricted admissions system for full-time day students does not apply to evening and correspondence classes. Second, although the maximum age for full-time day students is 35, no such limitation exists for correspondence or evening students. Last, because elementary teachers, grades one to three, need only two years of training and consequently receive less pay, they are usually anxious to continue their education and advance in teaching status and remuneration.

In summary, the typical experienced teacher is a woman instructing in a secondary school in a specialized subject. She probably attended a pedagogical institute for five years on a government stipend, has had eight years of foreign language and assorted courses in political and communist ideology, and has accepted an assignment in the school in which she now teaches.

Teacher Centers

The concept of a teacher center, or teacher training activities shared by a coalition of interests, is not new either to England or Russia. Designed to strengthen the competence of experienced teachers, this network of consortia offers opportunities for continuing professional education. It is achieved by orchestrating different institutions to perform a unified service.

Advanced Studies Centers are physically distinct from pedagogical institutes, although they are staffed largely from the institutes. All Soviet teachers must return for re-training once every five years. Most return in their fourth year of service or from the last time they received professional training. There is great flexibility in the choice of attendance.

A teacher may elect to take part of her training one day a week throughout the academic year, in evening or correspondence courses, or full time until she satisfies requirements. Besides courses in her subject specialty, she studies new methods of instruction, as well as advanced techniques in psychology and other motivational sciences.

In Leningrad, Hertzen sponsors two separate teacher centers, one for urban and one for rural teachers. The advantages of a distinct rural center lie in the Socialist system for teachers. All teachers are paid the same wages according to what they teach and their seniority. Rural teachers obviously fare better where goods and the cost of living in general is less expensive. Rural teachers also receive certain goods free, such as coal, wood or peat to use as fuel during the winter. Since many students from rural areas come for training, returning to rural homes and families is not necessarily a hardship for them. The Soviet solution of uniform salary schedules and the provision of utility services thus helps maintain adequate geographic distribution of teachers.

Teachers who attend teacher centers, the hub of inservice training, are paid to attend. They receive a stipend for re-training just as they do for institute training. Full time, part-time, evening,correspondence--none of the diverse methods for re-training offer any difference in substance. The academic content is the same throughout.

Centers share the bureaucratic framework of the institutes or universities. A typical center in Leningrad had eight faculties, 14 chairs, and six special departments staffed with about 150 instructors, mostly from the local pedagogical institute.

In addition to its academic and summer programs, a center will also sponsor special seminars, workshops, and conferences on both theoretical and practical issues in education. The experience of teachers sharing in dialogue on new trends, theories, curriculum developments, and research is apparently having a tremendous impact on Soviet educational practice. The teacher center, whose main objective is the improvement of subject competence and teaching skills, unifies the professional life of the teacher and consolidates re-training programs.

Issues in Research

How do research results in education ever get adopted into schools and practice? One way in the U.S.S.R. is through teacher training. The Institute of Pedagogical Sciences in Kiev, for example, trains specialists in research. It has 26 departments and four research institutes or centers. It conducts research in all phases of education, preschool through postgraduate. Its spokesmen say it is free to conduct any kind of research activity it thinks essential and feasible.

Hertzen Pedagogical Institute in Leningrad also trains researchers. Most of the graduates in pedagogical research are employed by the research institutes themselves.

Soviet educational leaders report that it is impossible to train a researcher on school problems who is not somehow associated with the day-to-day activities of the school. When some of our group questioned them about detachment and objectivity, they were adamant in maintaining that researchers on school problems had even to work part-time in the schools to understand fully the problems they were investigating.

The normal preparation for a potential researcher is graduation from a postgraduate course of studies, usually three years, then residency at an institution or university. He will eventually continue two more years to a doctorate.

The Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow often exchanges personnel with other pedagogical and research institutes. A special center in the Academy coordinates the work of all research institutes.

Institutes usually have three to five demonstration schools, as well as a network of cooperating schools, affiliated with its activities. These schools are used for the practice teaching of interns and testing of research.

Suppose a new curriculum text was being considered for adoption. Teachers at the demonstration schools would be invited to use a rough draft, and be instructed in its use. They would attend seminars and workshops at teacher centers explicitly for the explanation of the new content and techniques. They would learn the research that led to the development of the text, and how to conduct evaluation on whether or not the text itself is an improvement in student achievement.

If results of the experiment were successful, the text would be tested in an administrative region of about 1500 students. After that, the new text might be adopted throughout a republic. Because of the uniformity in curriculum throughout the Soviet Union, a promising innovation is likely to be introduced eventually everywhere in the U.S.S.R. This is especially true with regard to subjects taught in the senior years of secondary school, such as physics, mathematics, and the history of the U.S.S.R.

Each republic has its own pedagogical research institute or equivalent. Some advanced courses for experienced teachers are carried out under their auspices. The experienced teacher first learns of new methods and developments in research, then returns to his administrative region and teaches other teachers.

The magnitude of Soviet educational research is impressive. As one might expect, however, the coordination necessary to achieve full implementation is often hampered by the very bureaucracy created to carry it out. An obvious limitation to centralized control is the lack of local differentiation which may be appropriate to a given learning environment.

Conclusion

The philosophy dominating Soviet teacher education policy is an amalgam of Marxist theory, traditions and customs of the Soviet peoples, and the experiences, beliefs and aspirations of those who control the machinery of the educational establishment. The schools do their job of producing loyal, qualified workers for an industrial society.

A Soviet student or teacher has little choice in curricular subject matter. Academic freedom knows its highly restricted limits. The evolution of teacher education has thus come about in the U.S.S.R. in a prescribed and predictable manner. In a word, the state determines. Programs of teacher education and training, like schools everywhere in the U.S.S.R., are about universally identical. Education means uniformity, not diversity.

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Chapter VI

SCIENTIFIC AND EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION DISSEMINATION

Cybernetics is one of the most rapidly rising fields of study in the Soviet Union. The application of computers to information storage and retrevial, however, is just beginning in development. As in the United States, computers were first used to resolve mathematical and scientific problems; they are only now being turned to the categorization and indexing of information resources.

The following report was prepared by a Federal authority in the field on the basis of extensive private interviews and discussions during the ESS tour. The scope and detail of the report is probably not available elsewhere on the subject.

* * *

SOVIET SCIENTIFIC AND EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION DISSEMINATION

(by Lee G. Burchinal)

This report is based on about ten hours of conversation with five Soviet information-system managers in Moscow and Leningrad, observations in Moscow's Lenin State Library, the Leningrad Public Library, and several research institutes and Pioneer Palaces. In all settings, the Soviet representatives went to great lengths to provide details of their operations. In the case of the Soviet scientific and technical information service (VINITI), this included organization and flow charts in English.

Because of their sincere and generous aid, I was able to obtain a reasonably accurate description of technical information dissemination in the U.S.S.R. Most of this report covers three systems: VINITI (reported because it undoubtedly is the model for educational systems) and two educational systems--one for "school-related" information, and one for adult, continuing and correspondence education.

Another section of the report is devoted to the development of new curricula and its installation in the U.S.S.R. Finally, some scattered and less substantiated comments and observations are offered about the dissemination roles of other educational organizations. One caveat: the U.S.S.R. is a complex society with equally complex political, social, and educational systems. Certainly their total range of dissemination activities far exceeds the meager glimpses offered in this brief paper. For example, no reference is made to the publishing industry in the U.S.S.R., their many journals, numerous conferences held in each republic and at national levels, participation by Soviet specialists to COMECON (Socialist bloc equivalent to the OECD) and other international bodies. Still, the following descriptions may be helpful in gaining a general impression of some of the principle dissemination processes in the U.S.S.R.

Scientific and Technical Information

Ten general impressions emerged from my limited exposure to the Soviet scientific and technological information systems. To a lesser degree, education systems follow the same paths.

1. The Soviets put high value on providing ready access to current scientific and technological literature. They have built elaborate mechanisms at considerable cost to guarantee quick access to both foreign and U.S.S.R. results.
2. Their systems are based on formal, mandated requirements for inputs from R&D producers.
3. They have wisely given their major national information dissemination centers responsibility for providing "scientific and methodological guidance" to scientific institutes and bureaus or enterprises in the

15 republics for increasing their effectiveness in supplying input and using the output of the national information centers.

4. The Soviets have devoted considerable resources to acquiring, translating, and disseminating foreign literature through their national systems.

5. Their systems, at least on paper, have virtually all the elements of information system development in the West, but I could not judge the extent or effectiveness of the various activities.

6. Despite their passion for planning and systematizing, the Soviets have not solved the issue any better than we on how to organize information flow--to centralize it all; have numerous autonomous systems based on different problem areas, missions, audiences, or fields of knowledge; or a mixture of both.

7. Bureaucratic distances between scientific and other kinds of communication systems may be greater in the U.S.S.R. than in the U.S. For example, the top scientific information manager in the U.S.S.R. did not know of the U.S. educational information system (ERIC), although he was greatly impressed by the ERIC bulletins and Thesaurus I left with him, nor did he know of the information system being developed in the U.S.S.R. Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. In the U.S., all major Federal information system managers meet regularly and are generally knowledgeable about new developments across agencies.

8. Dissemination is not left to chance. Output from national systems are formally and, I understood, comprehensively transmitted to all appropriate libraries or information centers across the U.S.S.R. and to appropriate organizations in socialist countries.

9. Technologically, their systems lag far behind developments in the U.S., especially in sophisticated use of computers for printing and retrieval. Theirs is far more labor intensive than ours.

10. Soviet information system managers are eager to learn and to share or exchange abstract and index files with U.S. systems.

The Soviet Union has two organizations which, between them, have responsibility for acquiring, processing, and disseminating information about all current, world-wide scientific and technical literature. The All-Union Institute for Scientific and Technical Information (VINITI) is responsible for all published literature, mainly books and journal articles, while a companion organization, the All-Union Center for Scientific and Technical Information, covers the unpublished scientific and technical literature (dissertations, R&D reports, and related "fugitive" materials) in the U.S.S.R.

The Center also is responsible for collecting literature related to the education of scientists and technicians. Difficulties in acquiring this kind of "fugitive" literature which plague U.S. systems are not a problem in the U.S.S.R. I was told that if scientific workers did not submit reports as scheduled, the head of the Center could direct the management of the delinquents to withhold salary payment. The Center publishes abstract bulletins which go to all libraries, institutes, enterprises, and R&D centers in the U.S.S.R. Microfiche copies of reports are available upon request.

VINITI's operation demonstrates Soviet commitment to information retrieval. Literature is regularly received from 107 countries in 18 scientific and technical fields (i.e., automation and electronics, biology, physics, mathematics, metallurgy, transport, engineering areas, etc.). About 24,000 part-time translators are used to translate from 67 languages into Russian. A bi-weekly abstract journal is prepared to announce new literature in each of the 18 areas. Annual output exceeds 1.1 million abstracts.

Usually, significant reports are disseminated through express announcements. In addition, VINITI produces annually approximately 70 critical reviews of current knowledge in various areas of science and technology. VINITI also operates a scientific library with loan service, a reference center which also provides photo copies of literature, an All-Union

Translation Center, and a selective dissemination system for matching the content of new journal articles to the known interests of researchers in selected areas.

VINITI is laboring under the limitations of a small computer and the burdens of using a hierarchical classification system. They are attempting to correct both by acquiring a more powerful computer and by adding subject-related descriptors (as the U.S. does) to the older library-based universal decimal classification system.

VINITI enjoys prominence in the Soviet scheme of things. It is a creature of the powerful Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. which, in turn, reports to the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. From its national position, VINITI provides technical assistance, training opportunities, and related aid to information centers and systems in the republics and among information bodies of industrial enterprises and offices. VINITI also is responsible for operating international exchanges. It is in the process of negotiating an exchange with the U.S. chemical abstract services.

Soviet response to the information explosion has been similar to ours. They now have centralized mechanisms to handle large portions of the scientific and technical literature, e.g., VINITI and the related Center, but they are also developing autonomous or specialized systems to cover emerging fields and some "applied" areas. For example, while VINITI covers biology, another body is developing an applied medical system (their term), with limited initial remote, on-line retrieval capabilities.

I doubt if our National Library of Medicine could easily separate basic or theoretical literature on the biological sciences from application treatments, but this seems to be the course the Soviets are following. Also, because VINITI does not cover the behavioral sciences, except for "industrial economics", the Institute of Social Sciences has begun its own abstract bulletin to cover fields such as psychology, theoretical economics, law, philosophy, history, and sociology. Meanwhile, education is developing its own system. The likely result is that like the U.S., the U.S.S.R. will soon have several major science information systems and numerous others covering applied or newly developing fields. Coordination within the U.S.S.R. will become more difficult, and duplication of effort will increase as in the U.S., while international exchanges of information will become more complicated.

Department of Information of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences (U.S.S.R.)

Educational information systems in the U.S.S.R. represent primitive beginnings compared to VINITI. In contrast, U.S. educational systems (mainly ERIC) match, or by certain criteria, exceed scientific information systems in terms of computer applications, varieties of output, and connections with intended users.

Clearly, the most significant development is the emergence of the Department of Educational Information at the Scientific Research Institute of General Pedagogics in the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, as the chief educational information unit in the U.S.S.R. Four other institutes have information sectors (a lower-level unit than a department in the Soviet hierarchy). These are the Scientific Research Institutes of School Equipment and Technical Aids in Education; General Adult Education; Content and Methods of Teaching; and Perfectology (Handicapped). Generally, these sectors serve mainly the Institutes themselves, whereas the Department of Educational Information for all practical purposes operates at an All-Union level. Next year, the Plan permitting, the Department will be conferred the status of a branch library which means it is the officially recognized National Information Center for education in the U.S.S.R.

The Department has three objectives:

1. Collection and dissemination of information about current U.S.S.R. educational developments and R&D findings to Soviet educational administrators, researchers, and teachers;
2. Collection and dissemination of information on similar results from foreign countries;
3. Dissemination of educational information to the Soviet public at large, especially parents.

Accordingly, the Department is organized into three sectors:

1. Sector of information on national education;
2. Sector of information on education abroad;
3. Sector of information on pedagogical knowledge.

Elaborate input arrangements are being established to acquire information for later dissemination. Research reports and descriptions of new educational programs are received from research institutes, ministries of education, and teacher training institutes in all 15 republics. Libraries in Moscow, especially the Usinsky State Scientific Library of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and the Lenin State Library, supply information about newly acquired foreign books on education. Information about educational developments in other socialist countries is supplied through COMECON (the eastern bloc economic cooperative union).

In theory, then, the Department is the focus of all education/information transfer efforts of the U.S.S.R. and, to a lesser extent, of the Socialist world. The Department is already moving to become the chief interface between the eastern bloc and international educational information systems. For example, the head of the sector of information from abroad is the U.S.S.R. representative to the Steering Committee of the education systems operation being developed by UNESCO's International Bureau of Education in Geneva.

On the output side, the Department has embarked on a vigorous expansion effort. Presently, the Department publishes:

1. An abstract bulletin (4 times a year) of Soviet pedagogical dissertations--classified by main topics such as theory and history of education (by far the largest topic); methods of instruction (next largest); physical culture and sports; adult education; and general and educational psychology;
2. An abstract bulletin called Pedagogics and Schools Abroad; and
3. A Chronical of Educational Events Abroad.

Beginning in 1973, the Department expects to add the following publications:

1. A current bibliography of new Soviet pedagogical books--to be issued six times a year;
2. Current bibliography of new educational books from abroad--to be issued four times a year;
3. Annual retrospective bibliographies with annotations on such priority topics as improvement of instruction, theory and practice of polytechnical education, relationship of schools to families and communities, and teacher training;
4. Summaries of important Soviet books--four times a year;
5. Summaries of significant foreign books--also four times a year;
6. Annual abstracts of Soviet research reports, in six topical areas, to be selected each year;
7. Express information publications of significant results and items from newsletters of foreign countries.

The Department also functions as the methodological center for development of educational information services throughout the Soviet Union. The first step, I gathered, was a "research" project entitled, "The System and Principles in Organization of Pedagogical and Psychological Information in the U.S.S.R.".

The Department will assist libraries in implementing the results. Another function of the Department is to translate into Russian selected abstracts and materials from abroad.

The Soviets are also engaged in compiling an educational thesaurus. A Commission of the Presidium of the APS was set up in 1971 to prepare a dictionary of educational terms which may later serve as a basis for a national thesaurus. The APS plans to establish a department of thesaurus and computer services soon at one of the Institutes of the Academy.

It was impossible for me to judge the Department's operations, products, or their use. There simply wasn't time to do much more than obtain an overview of their operations. I can report, however, several personal reactions to my visit to the Department. They are:

1. The APS, as reported by the head of the Department, Dr. Vlas Aranski, is strongly committed to building a Soviet educational information system.
2. They know what the United States has in the way of ERIC and intend to emulate this accomplishment, although they assert that the U.S. is such a "rich country" and can do "everything on a big scale"--quotes from a Soviet spokesman.
3. A large portion of the Department's resources are going into the acquisition, processing, translating, and disseminating of foreign literature.
4. They jumped at the idea of document exchanges between the National Institute of Education, through ERIC, and the Department of Information for the APS.
5. Processing of literature is labor intensive and handled without benefit of computers. There are no plans now to shift to computer storage and retrieval.
6. Total throughput remains limited. The total number of items to be processed in 1973 probably will be less than 8,000--my guess. I was unable to get a firm fix because of some planning uncertainties. Budget, incidentally will not be the determining factor. Availability of paper for printing is the critical variable. Paper is in short supply in the Soviet Union.
7. The Department's modus operandi is information transfer. Their planners are where ERIC was several years ago. While our concerns have advanced to utilization of outputs, theirs are still focused mainly on establishing systems and products.
8. The Department has opted for a variety of publications with the intent of matching content (dissertations versus reports, or in the case of books, foreign versus domestic).
9. No document reproduction services are operating or planned. The Department's objective is to provide access tools for library usage or to meet consent awareness needs only by providing lengthy abstracts or summaries as substitutes for the originals.
10. Informing the public is seen as an important information responsibility. The Soviets combine technical and public dissemination whereas U.S. agencies generally separate the two and ignore the latter.

While at the Department of Information, I arranged for a cooperative exchange of information system products with Dr. Aranski. We readily established a warm basis for the exchange in which the National Institute of Education (NIE) will provide free copies of the monthly, semi-annual and annual issues of Research in Education, Current Index to Journals in Education, and related system publications, such as the ERIC Thesaurus to the APS Department of Information. The APS Department of Information will in turn provide free copies of all its secondary publications (bibliographies, indexes, etc.) with English indexes or tables of contents to NIE.

Knowing he was obtaining a favorable exchange, Dr. Aranski relayed a Russian saying to me via the interpreter, "A wise Russian frequently throws some salt over his shoulder before an important meal because the salt will often be returned many fold." By providing ERIC material now, NIE was throwing a little salt over its shoulder, which Dr. Aranski believes the APS will return many times over as the products of the Department of Information expand and multiply. (Actually, a little of the expected salt materialized immediately in the form of a bottle of Georgian brandy which the ESS participants polished off as an appetizer before our Thanksgiving Day dinner in Kiev).

Information Sector, Scientific Research Institute of Adult and Continuing Education (APS)

This Institute is located in Leningrad, whereas the other 10 Institutes of the APS are all in Moscow. The scope of the sector of information for the Institute is expanding. Up to this year, the Institute's activity had been limited to information about evening and correspondence education designed to meet requirements for completing secondary education. Beginning in 1973, the Institute and its information program will cover all adult education, in whatever form, and not be limited to completion of secondary education.

The main products of the information sector have been:

1. An annual bibliography entitled, "Evening (Shift) and Correspondence Secondary Education". Included are references to relevant Soviet reports, journal articles, and newspaper stories. The 1972 issue, number 6 in the series, contained 413 entries, was indexed by author, and had a broad subject classification as well.
2. Annual sets of summaries of selected foreign literature on topics of current interest among Soviet adult educators. One of the 1972 publications focused on "Investigative Techniques on the Comprehension of Information." U.S. literature was cited.
3. Summaries of reports at Soviet conferences on adult education. Several are produced annually, usually in advance of meetings so that in theory at least, participants come better prepared. I saw a 93-page set of summaries, issued in November, of papers on "Methodological Bases for Pedagogical Problems of Adults" to be given at a January conference in Leningrad.

In 1973 with its expanded charter, the Institute will increase bibliographies to cover all adult education. When I asked what expansion was planned in the size of publications, the answer was very little. Editors will be more selective: The broader area will be covered with fewer but more significant references in various sub-fields. When I asked why, two reasons were given: (1) staff shortages--researchers must prepare bibliographies in addition to their other tasks; and (2) paper shortages limit expansion, even if editors wanted to include more references.

Questions about relationships between the adult and continuing education information sector and the General Pedagogics Institute in Moscow produced several intriguing responses. One was that the Department of Information in the General Pedagogics Institute covered only school-related literature but did not process and disseminate information about adult education. My impression of the scope of work of the Department of Information was that it indeed had a broader view and included adult education in its purview.

My hypothesis of conflicting bureaucratic interest was heightened by another response: namely, that the "Moscow group" was not interested in sharing anything with the adult education institute in Leningrad. This reference occurred when I informed the director of the adult education institute of the exchange arrangements completed with the Department of Education. He wanted a similar, direct arrangement with his institute because "Moscow" would never send him anything.

Lack of communication within the APS about information systems developments was clearly confirmed when the Leningrad-based director of the adult education research institute, which included an information sector, was unaware of new programs in the Department of Information of the APS in Moscow and some related personnel shifts--facts which I knew from an international meeting in Geneva six months previous. Bureaucratic boundaries impede communication and coordination as much in the Soviet Union, as elsewhere!

Knowing that direct action produces better results than going through channels in any bureaucracy, I readily negotiated an exchange agreement with the APS. Professor Darinski and I agreed that NIE would provide the adult education institute with copies of all publications of the ERIC clearinghouse on adult and continuing education. In return, the U.S.S.R. adult education institute will send copies of its bibliographies and bulletins, with titles and indexes on tables of contents in English.

Curriculum Development and Implementation

At the peak of the national educational R&D system stands the U.S.S.R. Academy of Pedagogical Sciences with its 11 separate institutes and 2,000 plus "scientific workers." Each of the 15 republics has one or more educational research institutes which are independent of the APS but which may join with the APS in cooperative R&D ventures and receive technical assistance from the APS. The APS uses R&D to provide recommendations for new programs to the Soviet Ministry of Education.

Similarly, educational research institutes in the republics provide recommendations to their educational ministries. Where the republic has jurisdiction, the ministries may institute changes. In cases where results have national significance, the republic ministry may forward its recommendations to the Soviet Ministry of Education. Research workers are responsible for R&D but accountable to their ministry of education; the ministry, however, implements whatever changes are made, based on R&D.

Research institutes appear to follow a common development pattern. We received a similar description of the process both at the Ukrainian educational research institute in Kiev and at the All-Union Research Institute for Adult and Continuing Education in Leningrad. Initially, new curricula are developed and tested in three to five "basic" schools affiliated with the institute, using institute-prepared and printed materials. If results are promising, they are tried on a broader scale in a district.

At the next stage, the materials are tested across a region with 100 to 250 schools having a wide range of differences--for example, rural versus urban--and about 1,500 children. At this point, if results remain superior to current practice, recommendations are made to the Ministry of Education for republic-wide (or national if appropriate) implementation. If the decision is to go ahead, the ministry prepares and distributes the new materials, while the institute is responsible for retraining the methodologists in regions and districts. These consultants, in our parlance, then train other teachers.

The research institutes have a broader retraining and dissemination role as well. They train teachers to collect evaluative data for the researchers to analyze, and they provide postgraduate education for teachers who want to become full-time researchers.

Research institutes also are responsible for identifying and validating new developments created by schools themselves. This fact, noted by a spokesman for the Kiev institute, suggests an element of local flexibility and creativity we had not expected. Unfortunately, we were not able to pursue this casual comment.

It was frustrating trying to talk with Soviet researchers. I was unable to establish any bench mark at all to determine the rigor, complexity, or scale of their educational R&D. If one of our group asked about certain lines of research, the answer--generously elaborated--was affirmative.

If we asked about theory based on hypothesis-testing as opposed to descriptive or normative studies, we also got a yes--we do both, depending upon the need. If we asked about methodology, we received descriptions of questionnaires, interviews, observation, and so on. Not being able to read their literature, I was unable to pierce the vagueness and generalities delivered by our translators.

Some reports I inspected did include correlation tables and regression equations in addition to usual descriptive statistical arrays, so I have to assume some R&D is at a more sophisticated level. Nevertheless, I was left with the general (and empirically unsubstantiated) notion that the best Soviet educational R&D was generally descriptive, not theory based, and tended to be evaluation of pragmatically-determined attempts to achieve a specific degree of demonstrable improvement in a given subject field. Computer manipulation of data for educational research purposes is barely beginning in the U.S.S.R. Also, in keeping with what seemed to be their inefficient use of labor, research institutes had large staffs. The one in Kiev alone numbered over 100 workers, while the APS counts over 2,000 among its staff.

Their system of using the institutes to help install new curricula is sensible and instructive. In this way, the group that developed the innovation follows through with its application. But one cannot help but wonder about current practice when ten years was required to reach the decision to reduce the initial four years of school to three.

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Chapter VII

PERSPECTIVES ON SOVIET HEALTH

Free medical care is one of the more outstanding achievements of the Soviet Union in the social sector. The administration of this complex network of health delivery and training systems is a major enterprise, but the devotion of its participants seems to make it work effectively. The quality of care may be an open question, but the availability of it is not.

It is well known that most Soviet physicians are women. It is therefore appropriate that two health-related professional women from the ESS group have prepared special reports on the health field. Their data were collected in special visits to medical facilities in Moscow and Leningrad.

* * *

THE SOVIET HEALTH SYSTEM

(by Dianne Wolman)

In Moscow, I met with Alexis K. Kiselev of the Foreign Relations Section of the National Ministry of Health and three doctors of the Ministry staff concerned with the distribution of medical manpower. They very kindly tried to answer my questions, which sometimes ranged beyond their area of specialty.

Their office's main concern was with the assignment of doctors who have completed medical school and internship to three years of obligatory service. The government provides medical education at no charge to the student and many, in fact, receive a monthly stipend from the government. The student accepts the responsibility to serve as a physician where needed for three years. Theoretically, the students have a choice of specialty and geographic location, but if the aggregate of their choices do not match the state's needs (and the state's needs always exceed the supply), then assignments may be on another basis. However, after the three-year obligation has been served, the doctor is free to change location and specialty if he desires.

There is a tendency for doctors to prefer jobs in the major cities, and there is a relative undersupply of doctors in the rural areas. To correct this imbalance, medical schools are trying to admit more qualified students from rural areas, since they are more likely to return to practice in their home towns. There is also an effort to improve professional opportunities for young rural doctors by increasing educational opportunities at rayon (regional) hospitals. Another factor which is supposed to make rural medicine less unattractive is the requirement that all physicians return to medical school at least once every five years for several months' training in the latest practices and scientific findings. In the past, it had been more difficult for rural doctors to keep up with the current literature and advances in the profession.

The demand for doctors all over the Soviet Union exceeds the supply graduating each year, although medical school enrollments continue to increase. The Ministry's planning section calls for a larger ratio of physicians to population. (It is now about 266/100,000, compared with 158/100,000 in the U.S.A.) The ratio of physicians to population and the number of students being trained in medical schools are based on research conducted by Semashko Institute for health planning, plans prepared by all the Republics, and discussions with other ministries in the development of Gosplan. Ultimately, they expect to reach an optimum ratio and ideal numbers for each specialty.

When I asked if the people in areas with more doctors per capita and more hospital beds enjoyed better health than those in areas farther from the optimum, they told me that it was difficult to relate the research on mortality and morbidity statistics, and that it was not possible to document the benefits. It would be interesting to pursue this point further with people from Semashko Institute, because it seems that they do very detailed research and data gathering on the health status of the population. One would expect them to have some output measures to identify an optimum situation.

In Kiev, I visited an urban rayon polyclinic (Klinical Hospital #22) and was graciously escorted through the facility by the Chief, Dr. Verina Maria Vasylievna. She explained that the clinic served a catchment area of 50,000 adult population in the central city. It was strictly for outpatients and operated in conjunction with a near-by 500 bed hospital. The clinic received an average of 2,100 visits per day or approximately 14 visits per person per year. This relatively high figure results from an older than average catchment population (16,000 of the population are retired).

My impression was of a warm friendly neighborhood facility. The Chief addressed her staff (almost all female doctors) in the familiar voice, and patients greeted her as she walked down the corridors. Posters of nature scenes (including pictures of outdoor sports) and many fresh plants decorated the halls, and the Chief explained by saying, "Nature cures". Other examples of this philosophy were apparent. Near one patients' waiting area was a glassed-in room filled with potted trees and live, colorful birds. It was not done in an ostentatious manner as if meant to be purely decorative. In one of the therapy departments was a patients' recovery room with comfortable arm chairs, landscape murals, lots of plants, and soft music with recorded bird calls. There was no talking in the room, and patients were just supposed to sit and relax for prescribed periods of time after treatment.

Physical fitness was an important subject in the educational displays and apparently an integral part of treatment. There was a small gymnasium with exercise equipment and a scale for weight reduction programs. Also, in the lobby there were large detailed drawings (like a landscape architect's design) of several parks in the catchment area. It is common for a doctor to prescribe a daily walk of X meters or kilometers and the patient would go down to the lobby to check the distances of particular walking routes.

Another convenience in the lobby was an automatic board on which a patient could find the name of a test his doctor prescribed, push a button, and then see when and where the test would be given, how long it would take, what not to eat, what to bring, etc.

Each uchastok team serves about 3,000 of the catchment population. The doctors on the team spend about three hours a day in the hospital and the rest on house calls. (The whole staff works 12 hour shifts: eight to eight). The doctors take notes on these visits and dictate complete reports later at the hospital. The hospital has a typing pool for tape transcription and keeps detailed records of each patient.

Nearby the polyclinic was the central Skoraya Meditsinskaya Pomoshch, emergency medical service for the city. Dr. N.A. Lengauer, the Director, and Dr. H.Y. Petrovitch, the Chief Medical Officer, explained their program (the first such service established in the country and now 70 years old). There are 125 daytime and 86 night time ambulances, 400 doctors, 625 middle staff divided up into nine districts to serve a city of less than two million. Also, there are two boats (because of much activity on the Dniepro River and its islands), and two helicopters, and two airplanes on standby duty. They handle about 4,000 cases a month. The service operates on a budget of 3.5 million Rubles a year and is constructing a special 15 million Ruble hospital for the most serious emergency cases.

The ordinary brigade includes a doctor, nurse (feldsher) and driver. However, there are special brigades for heart attack (four), anti-shock (three), anti-toxin, hematology, pediatrics, neurology, and psychiatry (one each) which include a specialized doctor, lab technician, a special feldsher to conduct diagnostic tests and use therapeutic equipment, and a junior assistant. Four brigades have only a feldsher, no doctor, and they are used when a doctor is already with the patient and certifies that there is no need for another, or for instance, as a taxi when an elderly, handicapped person has difficulty going to a clinic for an appointment.

Each case is reported in detail and the cards are reviewed manually by a staff of eight statisticians in the main office. They look for patterns in accident cases and make suggestions to the city government to correct dangerous situations, particularly traffic problems. They also review all cases in order to strengthen preventive programs.

The whole procedure for receiving calls, assigning them to the proper district, and dispatching the appropriate brigade, is deliberate, methodical and recorded at each step. In fact, there is an electronic eye in the driveway that times how long it takes an ambulance to drive out once it receives an assignment. Although no mention was made of false alarms, they are apparently not infrequent because my interpreter told me she heard two come in while we were being shown the dispatching office. She said it is not unusual for people to dial 03 just for kicks when they are bored.

In Leningrad, I visited the Bechterev Psychoneurological Research Institue with two other members of the tour who worked at NIMH. I spoke with Dr. Valovic who is the director of the clinical out-patient department. He explained that the main emphasis of the Institute is on early detection and treatment of mental disease and the rehabilitation of the patient without hospitalization so that he can accommodate to society. They are experimenting with early treatments for schizophrenia, including family therapy and various studies of social interaction. Also, they are evaluating the impact of Leningrad's long established day hospitals and finding that those offering active treatment, including drugs, group, family and psycho-therapies and intensive early treatment, have a lower incidence of full hospitalization than those with less active treatment.

Alcoholism is another focus of their research, and they are looking for better treatment methods and techniques for keeping the alcoholic dry. All the health people I talked to agreed that alcoholism was a serious problem. They were running active propaganda campaigns against it but finding it difficult to change society. I could get no figures on the prevalence of the problem. In Leningrad, under the "dispensarization" program, three or four clubs have been established for ex-alcoholics for mutual assistance (like a non-religious Alcoholics Anonymous). It is important to help the ex-alcoholics find a strong new interest in life, and active involvement of their wives is encouraged by the clubs.

Dr. Valovic thought the research showed that alcoholism was not common among people who liked their jobs. It was interesting that he mentioned this because everyone else I talked to was very enthusiastic about the economic system--everybody has a job, everybody is doing some important function for the state, if it is a menial, unskilled job the pay is likely to compensate for its undesirability, etc. If alcoholism is an indicator of job dissatisfaction, it might be a sign of potential economic/political problems as well.

A few random observations:

Blood Banking - Most blood is bought at 12.50 Rubles a donation plus two days vacation and two free meals on day of donation. Volunteer blood comes primarily from medical students and hospital employees. The trend is towards increasing numbers of blood banks, so eventually, each major hosptial will have its own.

Family Planning - Contraceptive information is available at polyclinics, but I had the impression a patient had to ask and that it isn't part of their regular education and profilacktika programs. Abortions are also legal and readily available, though not encouraged. Contraceptives can be purchased without prescription in local drugstores, but I don't know what types this includes. I couldn't get any clear statement on whether there still is a national policy to encourage large families. My impression is that there probably still is an official policy supporting population growth, and large families receive better housing and perhaps food and clothing benefits. However, the indication from all the women we met was that they personally felt one or two kids were plenty since the mother usually has a full-time job, so that it is unusual to find large families of young children now.

Smoking - My impression was that cigarette smoking is more common in the Soviet Union now than here. When I asked at the Ministry of Health if it were considered a serious medical problem, they all just laughed embarrassedly and confessed that they all smoked. When I asked the same question at the polyclinic, the Director pointed out an anti-smoking poster. I asked her if the government has done anything to cut down on the production of cigarettes and the size of the tobacco industry, since the medical problems were apparent. She didn't think so but said that the government has recently included anti-smoking education in its profilcaktika propaganda. I suspect there would be serious black market problems if the government cut down cigarette production and that the political ideology places too strong an emphasis on obedience and lawfulness to permit that.

Contagious Disease - When the tour group visited one Detskii Sad (nursery school), it was not allowed to observe the young children in classrooms because it might spread some contagious infection. It was shown how each classroom was isolated and had its own passageways so children would not pass on infections to other classes in the school. In contrast to these extremely prudent precautions, it seemed strange to see all the soft drink vending machines (on street corners and public buildings) with just one plastic cup which was used, rinsed quickly in cold water and passed to the next in line.

* * *

MENTAL HEALTH RESEARCH

(by Jacquelyn Hall)

Institute of Psychiatry of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R.
2 Zagorodnoye Shosse, Wing 3, Moscow V-152

On Monday, November 20, Dr. Ronald Rieder (NIMH Intramural Program), and I visited the Institute of Psychiatry in Moscow. Well in advance of our visit, Dr. Fuller Torrey had written to Dr. Maya Shchirina, Research Secretary of the Institute, to let her know that Dr. Rieder and I would be visiting on the 20th and to outline for her our particular interests and jobs in NIMH. Unfortunately, Dr. Torrey's letter had not been received before we arrived, so we took them by surprise.

Although the Institute staff was busy and somewhat perplexed as to how to handle us, they were very gracious. We were greeted first by Dr. Shchirina, who then took us in to see Dr. Snezhnevskiy, Director of the Institute. We chatted for a while about their Institute and about the joint research agreement that had been negotiated in September 1972 by officials of NIMH and officials of the Moscow Institute.

Meanwhile, Dr. Snezhnevskiy and Dr. Shchirina called in other staff members whose interests and jobs are similar to Dr. Rieder's and mine. I spent some time with Dr. Diane Orlovskaya, Science Editor of the Psychiatry Section of the Korsakov Journal of Neuropathology and Psychiatry. She reviewed the process of selecting articles for the journal and told me a bit about the makeup of the journal's editorial board. The Korsakov Journal has an editorial board of nearly 50 members. They are selected from all over the Soviet Union, and they represent a wide range of expertise across the areas of psychiatry and neurology.

The general process of receiving papers, submitting them for appraisal by Editorial Board members, and editing them for publication appears to be similar to the practice of our own journals. Among the editorial staff which prepares the manuscripts for publication, however, there is only one non-scientist technical editor. All the rest are physicians. The manuscript is prepared at the Institute, then is sent out to a printer who handles the entire publication and distribution process.

Dr. Orlovskaya estimates that in the U.S.S.R. at least a one-year time lag transpires between the completion of a research project by an investigator and its publication in a journal.

The Institute itself does not take responsibility for public education in mental health. Institute staff, however, becomes involved in some public education through speeches to local factory groups or through public news and broadcast media. All public information and education activities in health are handled through the Society of Knowledge and are sponsored by the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Health. One of the Ministry's popular publications is Zdorov'ye (seemingly comparable to Today's Health magazine in the U.S.A.), which is written and produced for the general public and contains articles and advice on all aspects of health.

Dr. Rieder talked extensively with Dr. V. M. Gindilis, Dr. Valentina Moskalenko, and Dr. Shakmova-Pavlova. They spent the entire day discussing research on the genetics of schizophrenia.

All-Union Scientific Research Institute for Medical and Medico-Technical Information, Moskvoretskaya Nab., 2-a, Moscow

On Wednesday, November 22, I visited the All-Union Scientific Research Institute for Medical and Medico-Technical Information (VNIIMI), where I talked with Evgeniy Korochkin, Chief of the Foreign Relations Section.

VNIIMI apparently is the U.S.S.R. equivalent of our MEDLARS, basing its operations on a computer storage and retrieval system. In the computer files are stored literature citations and abstracts from worldwide medical literature. Each citation is assigned UDC (Universal Decimal Classification) numbers plus descriptors, or index terms, which describe the contents of the article. The information on each document is stored in the computer, and a search equation is used to retrieve information on specific topics. VNIIMI uses a Minsk-22 computer, and Mr. Korochkin says their search vocabulary will be published in 1973. Paralleling some of the services of the National Library of Medicine's MEDLARS or of the NIMH National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information, VNIIMI produces computer-generated bibliographies in response to individual requests from scientists all over the Soviet Union.

With its main administrative headquarters and computer operation in Moscow, VNIIMI has a computer terminal in each of the 15 Republics of the U.S.S.R. Between the Republic terminals and the Moscow computer, communications are handled by teletype. Thus it is possible for a specialist in Uzbekistan to contact the Moscow computer through a city in his own republic, enter his search equation, and have the results of his search printed out at the terminal. I do not know in which cities these terminals are located nor how many requests come in from each, but Mr. Korochkin says that in Moscow VNIIMI receives an average of about a thousand search requests per month.

About 250 people work at the VNIIMI office in Moscow. Their work is reflected in the entire process of VNIIMI--acquiring worldwide medical

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literature, translating, preparing computer input, searching the files, and preparing publications. They publish the Medical Reference Journal which is a journal of abstracts from medical literature. The journal is published in 16 sections. Section 14, devoted to psychiatry, has twelve 32-page issues annually. In addition, section 16 has some interest for us in that it includes literature on health education, organization of services, forensic medicine, and problems of medical information. Also VNIIMI produces a series called Express Information which simply is a monthly collection of literature citations and abstracts that are published as quickly as possible. These, too, are divided into topical sections so that they meet information needs of certain specialties. VNIIMI also publishes a monograph series for topics of interest in the field of medicine.

Bekhterev Psychoneurological Research Institute, 3 Ul. Bekhtereva,
Leningrad 193019

In Leningrad on Wednesday, November 29, I went with Dr. Rieder and Mrs. Diane Wolman to visit the Bekhterev Psychoneurological Research Institute. We were received at the Institute by Dr. Zatchepicky, Scientific Secretary for the Institute, and by Dr. Serge Semichov, Chief of the Scientific Medical Information Department. They had arranged for us to meet with staff members whose interests parallel those of our own.

Dr. Semichov and I had a most profitable dialogue about information work. Being very interested in the field of information processing and dissemination, Dr. Semichov seemed especially pleased that a person from the Clearinghouse was visiting Bekhterev. Although he had heard about our Clearinghouse, he had never had a chance to discuss it in detail with anyone. Moreover, being a relative newcomer to his job as information director, he was anxious to share ideas on information work.

Only during the past two to three years have medical information departments been formally incorporated into the organization of each medical research institute. Dr. Semichov is one of the new medical information officers. He is a psychiatrist, and although he enjoys his new role in the information field, he spoke about his own dilemma in deciding to specialize in information work rather than work in psychiatric research or treatment. He maintains touch with the practice of psychiatry by working in the hospital a couple of afternoons each week. He has a strong conviction that persons in the field of information should first be schooled in the discipline for which they are working, then learn about information methods. He feels that it is much better to take an expert in a scientific field and teach him the techniques of information than to take one who has had some training in philology or informatics and teach him the concepts necessary to perform high-quality information services in a particular academic discipline. Nevertheless, he realizes that after a person has been educated in a scientific field, it is often difficult for him to leave actual practice or research to become an information specialist assisting other scientists in the field.

He described his job in the following way: His staff in the Scientific Medical Information Department serve the scientific research community--primarily within Bekhterev but also sharing information with the staff of other hospitals in the Leningrad area. Their emphasis is on collecting, organizing, and distributing scientific information for the use of research scientists and practitioners. They do not assume responsibility for public information-education activities nor for the dissemination of information about the Bekhterev Institute itself. Their goal is to put into the researcher's hands information that is current, comprehensive, and appropriate for his particular interests and/or research projects.

Dr. Semichov stresses the importance of collecting information from foreign journals. He stated that more than half of the world medical journals are purchased by the Soviet Union, but not all of those that come into the U.S.S.R. get to Leningrad. In order to get foreign information to research institutes throughout the U.S.S.R., an information dissemination network has been established: At VNIIMI, photocopies are made of the tables of contents of international journals. Those copies then are sent out to the research institute medical information officers. At Bekhterev, the information staff peruses the tables of contents and selects articles that are appropriate for the research staff. They order photocopies of the articles from VNIIMI headquarters in Moscow. The information staff then passes the copy to the Chief of the department for which the particular article is appropriate.

Dr. Semichov mentioned that Bekhterev gets the journal pages of contents in the areas of psychiatry, psychology, and rehabilitation. Eventually, they get copies of some of the journals for the library, but they come much later than the photocopied pages.

In order to establish a comprehensive index that focuses on literature in specific areas and that facilitates retrospective searches, Dr. Semichov and his staff use another service of VNIIMI. At VNIIMI, 3x5 cards are made up containing a citation, UDC index numbers, and descriptions for articles going into the VNIIMI computer system. Those cards are sent out to the research institutes. The information staff of the Bekhterev Institute receives them, and a staff member called a Bibliographer peruses the cards. He selects items that are appropriate for research projects of the Institute, then places the cards in individual, topical card catalogues for each research scientist. In this manner, each investigator has his own personal card catalogue that is maintained in the library. While Bibliographers select materials and maintain the catalogue, it is up to the individual researchers to come in on their own to scan the catalogue and look over new titles that have been added.

One of the problem areas for the Soviet investigators is that some foreign journals are not obtained in the U.S.S.R. In order to get materials that are appropriate to their work but are not available through normal channels, the Bekhterev information staff scans Excerpta Medica and another index called Index Clinicus Sandoz. (They prefer those two indexes to the Library of Medicine's Index Medicus because they contain addresses of the authors). When an article is found that is appropriate to Bekhterev work, the information staff simply sends a postcard to the author requesting a reprint of his work.

Special bibliographies are also compiled by the information staff. As a bibliography is assembled in a research institute, a notice of the availability of that bibliography is sent to VNIIMI. VNIIMI publishes and distributes to all U.S.S.R. medical research institutes a catalogue of available bibliographies. Dr. Semichov had compiled a comprehensive bibliography on borderline states, and he now is working on a bibliography on rehabilitation of psychiatric patients.

The Bekhterev information staff also does some translation--usually upon the request of an individual investigator. Usually, such a translation is a summary of an article; only if it is crucial to an investigator's work would the document be translated word for word. All translations are deposited in the library for Institute staff to use.

Dr. Semichov also has established a cooperative liaison with the public psychiatric hospitals in the Leningrad area. His staff performs literature searches for them and maintains an information exchange with them.

Other aspects of his work are concerned with informatics--some research and analyses are qualitative; some are quantitative. Part of the informatics work is the preparation and publication of critical reviews of literature. These qualitative analyses of specific subject areas must be done by specialists, and at this point Dr. Semichov himself is the only person on the Berkhterev information staff who is capable of writing reviews. Another kind of informatics research focuses on forecasting and analyzing trends in research by careful study of literature titles and citations. In this task, an information specialist scans titles and origins of literature in order to determine how much literature is being published in a particular subject area, where most of the research is being done, and the primary focus of the research. All this analysis is done merely by a quantitative analysis of the Bibliographic citations of the literature, not the content of the articles themselves.

The Department of Scientific Medical Information includes the 5-member library staff and two staff members in Dr. Semichov's immediate office. He also supervises the photolab and the reproduction machine. He occasionally uses former patients of the Bekhterev Institute for some translating and clerical jobs.

He is the only doctor and the only psychiatrist who works in the information department at Bekhterev. Of the 14 medical research institutes around the U.S.S.R. that have information departments, all but one of the major information officers are doctors; in one institute, a graduate in informatics is head of the information office. Dr. Semichov expressed great interest in receiving more of the NIMH publications. Bekhterev already is on the Clearinghouse exchange list and gets a number of our publications. Those documents, however, go to the Director of the Institute, and Dr. Semichov says that they do not always get into the Information Department and the Library.

Dr. Semichov also expressed interest in trying to get more Soviet research reports and reviews of Soviet research into Western journals. He noted that the reference lists for most American papers include very few non-English-language documents, whereas all Soviet papers include references to documents from many countries and many languages.

* * *

Chapter VIII

SUMMING UP--SOVIET LESSONS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION

(by Cora Beebe)

In order to put our experience in perspective, most of the group met for a recap session at the Golden Parrot restaurant in Washington, D.C. on the evening of January 17, 1973. We convened in the three groups which had composed the inspection teams and attempted to identify those elements of Soviet education which we believed had most promise for further study with respect to American education. Some of them are:

1. The high priority placed on children within the Soviet society is translated into action by devoting large portions of the economy to child care (health screening centers, nursery and kindergarten facilities, summer camps and recreational activities, etc.) and education services. Many Soviet officials claim that children are the only priviledged group in the Soviet Union. Even though the Soviet social system makes severe demands on children in terms of conformity and loyalty to the collective, the system respects the value, if not the full rights of children.

The American society might reexamine its concerns for children, particularly in terms of the priority of such concerns. There is much evidence that America gives more lip service than action regarding the importance of children. Further, we might examine some current objections to daycare and comprehensive child care in light of Soviet experience. For example, pre-school programs could be adopted in this country to benefit working mothers and their children, especially those daycare centers located in buildings where the mother works. Studies have demonstrated that early stimulation of pre-school children has a positive influence on intellectual development as well as socialization.

2. The attitude towards children is very positive and has built into it many reinforcements. Teachers in general feel that it is the school that fails and not the student. Our sociologists indicate that children who tend to be happy in their childhood grow up to be more contented and well adjusted adults.

3. With these negative observations, the Preschool Education Group with regard to separation of home and school recommended that America look to its present institutions for modification or better utilization to avoid the restrictions found in Russia and to improve family and child life in America. Specifically, the recommendations were:

--Encourage increased local variation of preschool education programs in recognition of a pluralistic society.
--Increase opportunities for parent involvement and participation in preschool programs.
--Improve home-school relationships by utilizing democratic procedures and formats.
--Spread the comprehensive child care aspects of preschool programs into elementary and secondary levels to reduce the emphases on cognitive development.

4. The use of Pioneer Palaces as supplementary education is an excellent concept. In the U.S. system, we would have to make it attractive so students would want to go. As a concept, it is probably most applicable in central cities; the suburbs may not need it. The pioneer palaces are a superior approach to career education in the U.S. They allow students to select freely areas of practical experience in which they want help and get recognition for their participation in these activities. The separation of pioneer palaces from school settings is important. If the system could be adopted in the U.S., perhaps the

school electives could be eliminated and therefore allow the schools to stress the basics and a selective number of electives. If completely outside the school system, it would provide supervised play, instruction, hobby, and talent-building for school-age youngsters. Such a program could potentially reduce juvenile delinquency and provide positive influence on youngsters of working parents after school hours.

5. The inservice teacher training system was thought to be superior to ours. School teachers are required to attend the university for an extended period (6 months - one year) for retraining every five years. Financial support and expenses are provided as well as housing on campus for the duration of their stay. We should consider a requirement of this sort and, also, the provision of financial support to make it feasible.

6. Vocational education and training is provided a very favorable atmosphere. Students enrolled in these programs are not looked down on as they often are in the U.S. To upgrade the importance and relevance of such education and training is one of the objectives of U.S.O.E.'s career education program.

7. The implementation of educational R&D is worth examining. R&D institutions as well as universities have associated with them a variety of schools in which to test and disseminate their R&D. One type of school has heavy inter-action with the R&D staff. There are other school settings where the level of inter-action is very slight. When trying out a new idea, the teachers receive training in the classroom setting. They stress observation procedures in this training to ensure conformity.

8. One of their methods of improving school practice is to use scientific workers (the recent college graduates who remain within the university framework for their initial employment) to go out into the field to help school systems improve. This is one method of providing technical assistance which would have in the U.S. the added advantage of helping to link the schools to the higher education institutions where much of the research and development in education is taking place. It could also be an effective dissemination strategy if the "scientific workers" helped the schools introduce a practice developed at the institution where they took their training.

9. In the Soviet system, they have special programs for improving education for the Far North population, a population not too dissimilar from American Natives. Education is begun with instruction in the native language with stress on practical courses. Russian is then taught as a second language, with stress on the importance of every student learning Russian. The program includes special incentives to recruit natives as teachers. This, in part, reflects the intent to help them preserve the Far North culture. In the training, extra privileges are provided beyond what prospective teachers receive. For example, they receive a clothing allowance and free room and board as well as the same stipend other prospective teachers receive. Teachers who are in the Far North but not native to that area are provided funds to enable them to return to their homes frequently. This concept should be considered in dealing with American Natives and other Non-English speaking populations.

10. The Soviet System has in operation an orderly process for the implementation of research. Findings are submitted from R&D agencies and colleges and universities through regional, then national research institutions (10 Pedagological institutes). Once they have received the approval at one or more of one of the ten principal national research institutions, the results are passed on to the several Ministries of Education to implement.

11. There is an extensive network of adult education programs in the U.S.S.R. which could be adopted in the U.S. Social pressures are built into the system to encourage adults to continue their education

(this would be a problem to adopt in our system). The role of the trade unions in this process is strong (e.g. they provide some training and their contracts call for released time with pay for adults to go to school). Our trade unions could expand their activities in similar ways. In evening correspondence courses, periods for consultation with faculty are provided either at the local school, the place of employment, or at the university. Depending on the level of the course, it may be a few hours a week or as much as two or three hours every other day. Such a system in the U.S. would be especially relevant in eliminating adult illiteracy (which was done in the Soviet Union), providing opportunities to change career, to upgrade skills, or for leisure enjoyment.

12. The Soviet manpower policy is well developed. Training is provided only in areas for which there are jobs, and priorities are established among areas in which there are employment needs. Every institution of higher education is apportioned the number of individuals they may train in each field. One of the difficulties in their system is that it is difficult for students to change their course of study once admitted. The activities of the Department of Labor in the U.S. could be expanded into a more active dissemination posture with emphasis on presenting data in layman's terms.

13. The system of motivating individuals toward careers in general is useful. In the U.S., we do very little of this. Perhaps this should be a prime objective of USOE's career education program. However, the Soviets from our point of view carry it too far by stressing that no individual can be fulfilled without a career.

14. The review of faculty members every five years could be considered. Although in their system a publish/perish system exists, the defense of this work every five years should aid in improving the quality and dissemination. About six to nine months is spent in preparing for this defense. Teachers who are not measuring up to standards are reviewed more frequently. Failure to measure up over time leads to dismissal and avoids seniority/tenure problems. This review is probably *pro forma* for senior faculty, however.

15. The universities have academic councils to which students are elected. These councils, organized for each department at the level of the deans and one for the university as a whole, review questions of admissions, curriculum, faculty tenure, student discipline, award of research funds, etc. In addition, students have their own organizations which monitor student behavior and report on it to the academic council. Further, the student council may make recommendations on academic practices. The formalized involvement of students in the governance of the university is a concept which is growing in the U.S. and could be strengthened by the Soviet experiences.

16. The provision of specialized schools and the right of the parents to select the school for their children could be adaptable in the U.S. We do have some specialized schools, e.g., vocational high schools, and where they exist, parents do have a choice. This concept could be expanded, provided it did not result in a segregated system or one based on economic status. It is our impression that this is happening to some extent in the Soviet system.

17. The use of standardized national tests at the elementary and secondary level as a means of measuring educational progress could be effective in the U.S. We have made some beginnings with National Assessment but need to carry it to the next step as the Soviets have so we can compare district by district and State by State the output of our education system.

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APPENDIX I

Field Trip: "EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R."

November 16-30, 1972

Participants

Max Friedersdorf and Priscilla
Special Assistant to the President of the United States
The White House

Saul Rosoff and Estelle
Acting Director
Office of Child Development
Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Dr. Albert L. Alford
Assistant Commissioner for Legislation
U.S. Office of Education

Dr. Lee Burchinal
Director
Dissemination Task Force
National Institute of Education
Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Dr. Edith Grotberg
(Mrs. Lee Burchinal)
Director, Information Secretariat
Children's Bureau
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Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Dr. John C. Egermeier
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Task Force on Research Training
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Carol Egermeier
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Dr. Corinne Rieder
Director, Career Education Development Task Force
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Dr. Ronald Rieder
Research Psychiatrist
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National Institute of Mental Health
Department of Health, Education and Welfare

John Jennings
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A DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

PURPOSES

ESS is designed to assist professional staff members in the field of education, who are employed by the Executive and Legislative Branches of the Federal Government, to obtain a more realistic understanding of current educational practices and problems and to improve communications between Washington educational staff members and educators in the field. It particularly strives to develop bridges between educational researchers and policy makers so that both endeavors may be enhanced.

ESS seeks to increase staff understanding and awareness of contemporary problems in American education and to supplement their Washington work experiences with a variety of inservice training seminars and in-the-field personal observations. Emphasis in these voluntary and supplementary learning experiences is upon developing broad educational understanding and perspective and a wide exposure to current educational problems. ESS advocates no particular educational policies nor does it take positions on pending legislative controversies.

Stated another way, ESS provides educational experiences to help overcome the gap discussed by John W. Gardner in Self-Renewal:

> "As organizations (and societies) become larger and more complex, the men at the top (whether managers or analysts) depend less and less on firsthand experience, more and more on heavily "processed" data. Before reaching them, the raw data--what actually goes on "out there"--have been sampled, screened, condensed, compiled, coded, expressed in statistical form, spun into generalizations and crystallized into recommendations.
>
> "It is characteristic of the information processing system that it systematically filters out certain kinds of data so that these never reach the men who depend on the system..... It filters out all sensory impressions not readily expressed in words and numbers. It filters out emotion, feeling, sentiment, mood and almost all of the irrational nuances of human situations. It filters out those intuitive judgments that are just below the level of consciousness.
>
> "So that the picture of reality that sifts to the top of our great organizations and our society is sometimes a dangerous mismatch with the real world.....

> "That is why every top executive and every analyst sitting at the center of a communications network should periodically emerge from his world of abstractions and take a long unflinching look at unprocessed reality."

One outcome of the ESS program, it is hoped, is a greater appreciation of the importance of evaluation in educational programs--an emphasis on "what works" and how it might be stimulated elsewhere through appropriate Federal actions.

ESS's goal, in short, is to enable its participants to be generally more effective in their professional staff duties and of greater service to the Congress and the Executive Branch in the development and enactment of sound educational policies.

PARTICIPANTS

ESS participants are varied in their political affiliations and persuasions; they are Republicans, Democrats, and independents. The major criterion for participation in ESS activities is occupational: the individual must perform in a Federal professional staff role involving the development or implementation of Federal policy in the field of education. Hence, ESS activities typically bring together Federal aides from four areas:

Congressional: Majority and minority counsels and professional staff members of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, the House Committee on Education and Labor, the House and Senate Committees on Appropriations; as well as legislative assistants to Members of the House and Senate who serve on the Congressional committees on education. In addition, professional staff of the Congressional Research Service, and the General Accounting Office.

Executive Offices: Professionals from the Office of Management and Budget (Human Resources Programs Division, Office of Legislative Reference, Office of Program Coordination, Federal Executive Board Secretariat) and special assistants to the President.

Departments: The Secretary and Assistant Secretaries of HEW, Commissioner of Education, Director of the National Institute of Education, Deputy Assistant Secretaries for program planning and evaluation, legislation, budget, research, and intradepartmental educational affairs. In addition, senior program specialists, public information officers, special assistants to bureau chiefs, etc.

Agencies: Professional staff members of other Federal education agencies: National Science Foundation, Office of Economic Opportunity, National Endowment for the Humanities, Smithsonian Institution, etc.

ACTIVITIES

ESS activities generally take the form of either dinner-discussion meetings with prominent personalities in the field of education or site visits to notable educational programs.

"Travelling seminars" typically consist of 15-25 senior, bipartisan staff members from Congress and the Executive departments whose primary responsibilities are for the development and implementation of Federal educational policy. Dinner meetings serve a wider spectrum of educational staff personnel drawn from Capitol Hill and various Federal agencies.

The general format of ESS activities is as follows:

A. ESS participants obtain the written approval and/or encouragement of their congressional or agency principals. (ESS has been endorsed by Senators and Representatives of both political parties, as well as Executive Branch agency heads.)

B. ESS participants suggest an agenda of educational topics (e.g. "preschool," "disadvantaged," "educational technology"). The ESS project staff, in cooperation with an outside consultant-expert in the particular topic or locale, then plans the site visit to worthwhile educational programs and makes the necessary logistical arrangements.

C. The group travels together, sometimes under the leadership of the outside consultant, in short trips from Washington to educational projects. (Eighteen trips during the course of a calendar year are planned in accordance with the congressional workload and the budgetary cycle.) In the field, ESS participants view and discuss educational operations with persons they would not normally meet in Washington (e.g. classroom teachers, community leaders, administrators, researchers, students, parents, etc.).

SPONSORSHIP AND CONTROL

Educational Staff Seminar commenced operations in February 1969 and is one of a series of leadership development programs of The George Washington University's Institute for Educational Leadership. ESS is funded by a grant to the Institute from The Ford Foundation and by a contract for partial reimbursement of training expenses from the U.S. Office of Education, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Office of Economic Opportunity.

A Steering Committee for ESS, composed of participants representing various agency affiliations, meets regularly to give advice and counsel to the program.

ESS's Director is Dr. Samuel Halperin, formerly a college professor of political science, Assistant U.S. Commissioner of Education for Legislation, and Deputy Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. Assistant Director Jonathan Brown has worked with Federal educational policy as an assistant to a U.S. Representative and a U.S. Senator. ESS's Administrative Officer is Ms. Dietra Rogers. Its Administrative Assistant is Ms. Ann Hymes.

--February 1973